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ABSTRACT

The 17 conference papers in this collection are arranged under six headings: consulting in business communication; techniques for teaching business communication; research activities in business communication; organizational communication; psychology, parapsychology, and communication; and current issues in communication. Specific topics covered by the papers include consulting in managerial and secretarial communication, classroom training modules in verbal communications, internal organizational patterns, the impact of speech training on oral communication in industry, active listening, communication problems involving superior/subordinate roles, misreading communication, legal implications of communication, sexist language in business communication, and sexism in nonverbal communication. The conference program and an author index are also included. (TJ)

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Proceedings

"ABCA - Expanding into New Horizons"

1978

SOUTHWEST ABCA
SPRING CONFERENCE

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Sam J. Bruno, Editor

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PREFACE

A major purpose of Southwest ABCA Conferences is to foster scientific study, research, and education in communication, and to encourage the exchange of ideas among conference participants.

The 1978 Southwest ABCA Spring Conference, held on March 8-10 at the Fairmont Hotel in Dallas, Texas, provided incontrovertible evidence of successfully fulfilling this purpose. More than 20 papers, most of which are included in this volume, covering a wide range of topics were presented at this highly successful meeting. The Dallas conference, like our other meetings, provides tangible testimony to the maturity of the Southwest ABCA.

Southwest ABCA members owe a debt of appreciation to Jack D. Eure for planning an excellent program.

Above all, we are indebted to the many authors who have contributed to this conference as speakers and who agreed to have their papers published in this volume. They also provided camera-ready manuscripts.

A debt of gratitude is also owed to Dr. Rosemary Pledger, my Dean, for providing the funds required for publishing these Proceedings. For that reason, as well as many others, Dean Pledger, I say on the behalf of the Southwest ABCA region a personal and professional "thanks."

My most capable work-study student, Cathy Penn, also deserves recognition for her contribution to this volume. I am indebted to Cathy for preparing all of the prefatory parts, correcting typographical errors in manuscripts, skillfully retyping one or two manuscripts, and carefully proofreading this entire publication.

As in other Southwest ABCA Proceedings, the papers appearing in this volume are as they were originally presented at the conference. The sequencing of these papers corresponds to the conference program. The complete conference program, as usual, is included in this publication.

This is my fifth year as editor of the Southwest ABCA Proceedings and I continue to hope you will find these Proceedings professionally enriching, and that you will continue to show your interest and participation in the Southwest ABCA for years to come.

Sam J. Bruno
Editor
ABCA -- Southwest Region

University of Houston at Clear Lake City
February, 1979

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PROGRAM

SOUTHWESTERN REGIONAL MEETING

AMERICAN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION ASSOCIATION

1:30-1:45 p.m. Continental Room

Session A - WELCOME

Chairperson: Bobbye Persing, Vice President, Southwest SBCA

Message from Lucian Spataro, President, ABCA

1:45-3:00 p.m. Continental Room

Session A - CONSULTING IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Chairperson: Dennis Mott, Oklahoma State University

"Consulting in Managerial and Secretarial Communication"
Barron Wells, University of Southwestern Louisiana

"What You Can Accomplish in Eight Hours"
Joseph A. Rice, University of Houston

"Some Communication Aspects of the Written Consulting Contract"
Robert N. Carter and Joan C. Baron, Southwest Texas State University

3:15-4:30 p.m. Continental Room

Session A - TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Chairperson: Nancy Darsey, Lamar University

"The Use of Computer-Aided Instruction in Business Communication"
J. Douglas Andrews, Texas Tech University

"Communication-Decision Making Modules in Business Communication"
Jill Smith and Robert L. Smith, East Texas State University

"Internal Organizational Patterns--A Technique of Teaching"
J. E. Gratz, Pan American University

"Putting A Square Peg Into A Round Hole: Communication Models and Their Applications"
Daniel S. Cochran and C. Kendrick Gibson, University of Arkansas

FRIDAY, MARCH 10

8:30-9:45 a.m. Continental Room

Session A - RESEARCH ACTIVITIES IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Chairperson: Barron Wells, University of Southwestern Louisiana

"The Impact of Speech Training on Oral Communication Performance in Industry"
Laura Lemoine, Louisiana State University

"Communication Difficulties as Perceived by the Accounting Professional and Professors of Accounting"
J. Douglas Andrews, Texas Tech University

"An Experimental Study in Teaching Business Communication Using Two Different Approaches: Theory/Application Approach Vs. Writing Approach"
Maxine B. Hart, Baylor University

"Active Listening: An Effective Selling Tool"
Fred L. Myrick, University of Alabama, Birmingham

10:00-11:15 a.m. Continental Room

Session A - ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Chairperson: Raymond V. Lesikar, University of Texas at Austin

"Understanding the Role of the Grapevine in Organizational Communication"
Keith Davis, Arizona State University

"The Challenge of Teaching Organizational Communication to Executive MBA Candidates"
George T. Vardaman, University of Denver

"A Macro-Model of the Organizational Communication System"
William C. Sharbrough III, Louisiana State University

"Selected Communication Problems Involving Superior/Subordinate Roles"
J. Lynn Johnson, Southwest Texas State University

11:15-11:45 a.m. Continental Room

Session A - BUSINESS MEETING

Chairpersons: Jack, Ray, Phil, Bobbye

1:45-3:00 p.m. Continental Room

Session A - PSYCHOLOGY, PARAPSYCHOLOGY AND COMMUNICATION

Chairperson: James Watt, Texas Tech University

"Self Perception and Effective Communication"
Richard E. Dutton, University of South Florida, Tampa

"Anxiety or Hostility: Misreading the Communication"
Franklin Williams, University of Arkansas

"The Application of Parapsychology to Business Communication and Other Behavioral Science Offerings"
James R. Hemingway, Boise State University
John D. Pettit, Jr., North Texas State University

3:15-4:30 p.m. Continental Room

Session A - CURRENT ISSUES IN COMMUNICATION

Chairperson: Phillip V. Lewis, Oklahoma State University

"Communication and the Law"
Dale Level and Scott Hickam, University of Arkansas

"Sexist Communication: Do We Mean What We Say?"
Leah Grubbs, University of Tennessee, Martin

"Sexism in Nonverbal Communication"
Bobbye Persing, Central State University

Discussants for Papers on Sexist Communication:
Nancy Darsey, Lamar University
Raymond Lesikar, University of Texas at Austin

PART I
CONSULTING IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

CONSULTING IN MANAGERIAL AND SECRETARIAL COMMUNICATION

Barron Wells, University of Southwestern Louisiana

ABSTRACT

Many consulting opportunities exist in the field of business communication. This consultation can be beneficial to the business community, the university, and the consultant. The consulting activities can consist of short courses designed to meet employees' needs in certain fields, consulting sessions dealing with specific areas, or advice for the solution to a particular problem. The key to successful consulting in business communication is to have a clear understanding of what the client wants, needs, and expects. This article describes some communication consulting work currently being done by professors at the University of Southwestern Louisiana.

CONSULTING OPPORTUNITIES IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Consulting has long been looked upon as an integral function of university faculties, especially faculty members in colleges of business administration. Collegiate schools of business faculty, serving as consultants to the business community, serve several valuable functions. Local businesses are afforded access to the thinking of highly trained specialists in various fields, usually at a relatively low cost. Schools of business faculty get the opportunity to keep in touch with the "real world of business" and not get lost in total ivory tower theory. Relations between the university and the business community are no doubt greatly enhanced by those faculty members who serve in consultant capacities. Perhaps not the least of the advantages that accrue to the faculty members is the opportunity to earn some additional income while at the same time accomplishing these other equally worthy functions as well.

Consulting opportunities seem readily available in the areas of Management and Marketing, but are to be found in all other areas, including Business Communication. Of course, much of the consulting in the communication area would involve communication media, and would be supplied for the most part by the manufacturers of the equipment and the telephone company. However, there is a vast, and as yet mostly undeveloped, field available for consulting that is related to what is taught in Business Communication courses. Many businesses are quite willing to employ a business communication specialist to spot problems in their communication flow, develop channels for a better flow of communications, train executives in the art of communicating effectively with other people at all levels of the organization, and train secretarial personnel in the development of effective communication documents.

During the past two or three years, the author has developed a consulting practice in addition to his teaching and administrative duties at the University of Southwestern Louisiana. It is still in its infancy, and much remains to be done to revise and develop it. The University of Southwestern Louisiana is located in Lafayette, a small city of approximately 80,000 population on Interstate 10 about 150 miles west of New Orleans. Although the city is small, it is an "oil center," with over 300 oil related companies having major offices located there.

Consulting services are offered by at least two different methods. One method is through two programs (short courses) that have been developed, each of which may serve employees of several companies at the same time. The other method is by serving as a consultant to individual businesses. The two programs, or short courses: one entitled "Executive Communication Program" and the other entitled "Secretarial Communication Program," are described below. Each of the programs is set up to meet for ten, two hour sessions, usually one night per week. The meetings can be held at facilities furnished by the company or companies inovlved, or at a university facility. Of course, the schedule of meetings and length of meeting can be altered if necessary to fit the needs of the participants involved.

EXECUTIVE COMMUNICATION PROGRAM

A person may be an excellent decision-maker, planner, and policy maker, but he can never be as effective as he could be if he is not skilled at implementing those decisions, plans, and policies. Since no one person can run the entire show, this implementation must be accomplished through other people: superiors, peers and subordinates, as well as other businesses, labor organizations, the community, and even government. And he must implement these decisions, plans, and policies through these people by communicating with them. Often his skill in communication, manifested through implementation, can be just as important as the initial decision making, planning, and policy-making skill. Therefore the Executive Communication Program is designed to enable the top executive, the mid-manager, the supervisor, and the executive secretary to implement more effectively their decisions, plans, and policies through other people by improving their ability to communicate effectively with others. Theory and psychology of communication are combined with practical case problems to provide a behaviorally oriented as well as realistic approach to effective communications by the executive and the supervisor. It is developed around the major areas of communication commonly engaged in by business:

1. Communication within the organization
    a. downward

6 Communication with Customers
(Claims and adjustments; credits; collections; and goodwill.)

7 Communication with Other Businesses
(Purchases; sales; claims and adjustments; exchange of information; cooperation; and competition.)

8 Communication with the Community and Government
(Development and maintenance of the company image; involvement in community affairs; fulfilling needs of business while at the same time complying with governmental regulations.)

9 Communication Problems Submitted by Participants
(Specific communication problems experienced by participants in their job situation.)

10 Conclusion
(Summary, tie-together, loose-ends, general discussion, and evaluation.)

SECRETARIAL COMMUNICATION PROGRAM

The Secretarial Communication Program is designed to enable the secretary to perform her communication tasks more effectively, more rapidly, and at a lower cost by improving her communication skills. It is also designed to enable the secretary to reduce her supervisor's work load by accomplishing much of the communication for the business with little or no supervision. Principles of effective written and oral communication are combined with practical case problems to provide a psychologically sound as well as realistic approach to the preparation of business messages.

A typical arrangement of the ten, two hour sessions for the Secretarial Communication Program would be as follows:

Meeting Number — Topic

1 Introduction and Organization
(Importance of effective communication in business; program content; and examination of the needs of each participant.)

2 Principles of Effective Written and Oral Communication
(Psychology of effective communication; and guidelines for communicating effectively.)

3 Good News Communications
(Making the most of news that will please the receiver.)

4 Bad News Communications
(Communicating unpleasant news to the receiver in a tactful manner in order to maintain his goodwill.)

    - b. upward
    - c. laterally
    - d. grapevine

2. Communication among business organizations

3. Communication between business and labor or labor organizations

4. Communication with customers

5. Communication with the community

6. Communication with government

The program also includes the three major kinds of communication found in business usage: 1. Good news, 2. Bad news, and 3. Persuasive. Some may argue that there is a fourth kind of communication: routine and neutral; however, it is questionable whether any communication is so routine that it has a totally neutral impact on the receiver. If a given communication has an impact, then it is not neutral, and can be fitted into one of the original three categories. If it is truly neutral, then it is not worth worrying about anyway.

A typical arrangement of the ten, two hour sessions for the Executive Communication Program would be as follows:

Meeting Number	Topic
1	Introduction and Organization (Overview of communication in business; importance of effective communication in business; and examination of the needs of each participant.)
2	Communication Theory (The communication process; principles of human communication; and overview of kinds of communication utilized by the business organization.)
3	Communication within the Business Organization (Downward, upward, lateral, and grapevine; uses for each; and media employed in each.)
4	Communication with Labor and Labor Organizations (Development of cooperative, productive employees; job satisfaction; implementation of plans; overcoming resistance to change; and personnel policies.)
5	Communication with Prospective Employees (Development of job descriptions; advertising position vacancies; developing application forms; conducting employment interviews; screening applications and appointing personnel; conformity to governmental regulations.)

5 Persuasive Communications
(Encouraging the receiver to grant your request, buy your product or services, etc.)

6. Persuasive Communications
(Encouraging the delinquent customer to pay his account.)

7 Short Reports
(Gathering information, interpreting information, and preparing a short report.)

8 Oral Communications
(Face-to-face communication and telephone techniques designed to develop and maintain goodwill.)

9 Communication Problems Submitted by Participants
(Specific communication problems experienced by participants in their job situation.)

10 Conclusion
(Summary, tie-together, loose-ends, general discussion, and evaluation.)

CONSULTANT TO INDIVIDUAL BUSINESS

Consulting for individual businesses can of course consist of one or both of the programs described above if a particular company wants the entire package for its employees alone. The more usual occurance, however, is that an individual firm will want consultant services in a specialized area. The first step here is to determine exactly what they want, need, and expect. Often this is not easy; many times the company itself doesn't know exactly what its needs are and what it would like accomplished by the consultant. If there is not first this "meeting of the minds," the results will probably be unsatisfactory. Usually the company's needs can be defined as fitting, or closely resembling, one or more of the topic areas in one of the programs previously described. If this is the case, many materials developed for the short course can be used, and the topic can be pursued in greater detail. If this is not the case, new materials must be developed, and charges to the company increased accordingly. The consultant should be careful, in his attempt to get into the consulting area, please the company, and earn some extra income, not to agree to provide services that are outside his area of competence or for which he does not have adequate time to do the job properly.

COMPENSATION

The charges for these consultation services are usually based on a rate of $50 per hour of "performance," for the company, plus any and all expenses incurred. This "performance" time is exlusive of preparation time. However, this is the "base rate" for the two pre-organized programs or for segments of them. If new materials and procedures must be developed, the charge ranges upward from $50 per hour of performance to possibly as much as $100 per hour. Some adjustment may also be made depending on how many employees of a company are benefiting from the consultation. As was stated earlier, the consulting opportunities have not been pursued extensively, mainly because of time limitations. However, the work that has been done has been well received by the business community. The business communication faculty hope to further develop and expand their consulting work in the future.

SOME COMMUNICATION ASPECTS OF THE WRITTEN CONSULTING CONTRACT

Robert N. Carter, Southwest Texas State University
Joan C. Baron, Southwest Texas State University

ABSTRACT

The written consulting contract is a key to a successful relationship between the consultant and the client. The written contract is a communication tool in which duties as well as performance objectives and schedules are specified. In addition to meeting technical requirements of any written document, the written consulting contract is a document which can also convey important psychological messages. It can be used to communicate trust thereby reducing fear and threat, and it may be seen as a certificate of honor and integrity consequently engendering faith, believability, and confidence between the consultant and the client.

INTRODUCTION

There are many considerations that one must deal with in consultant-client relationships. Among the most important of these are the issues of integrity, performance, and responsibility. The consultant's function is a most unique one, and it requires unusual training and talent. The consultant must have, as a former teacher, Dr. Frank Goodwin, Professor Emeritus, University of Florida, used to say, a pedigree. Clients expect the consultant to be an expert. Evidence of proper training and education is a highly desirable ingredient in communicating expertise and securing initial confidence.

Beyond being able to secure initial confidence, the more successful management consultants are those who possess the talent to effectively exhibit highly refined skills of interpersonal relations, communication, perception, analysis, and patience. It is the communication aspect of the consultant-client relation that the discussion in this paper is devoted. More specifically, we shall be dealing directly with some of the important communication aspects of the written consulting contract.

ARE WRITTEN CONTRACTS NECESSARY?

Any contract, written or oral, is a tool. It is a tool of communication. It contains the specific responsibilities and duties of the parties to it. It goes even further because it is a device which helps establish rapport, confidence, and trust between the parties. These considerations are vital in the consultant-client relationship. Because of the vitality of these considerations, it is essential that a written contract be provided by the consultant.

In addition, clients have certain expectations which require the presence of a written contract. Ms. Joan Baron, co-author of this paper, and Ms. Katherine Illsley, M.B.A. candidate at Southwest Texas State University, recently conducted a survey of managers' attitudes toward management consultants.[1] Misses Baron's and Illsley's findings reveal more evidence that the written contract is an essential communication tool. Some of their findings are shown in the following table.

TABLE I

Statements and Responses of a Survey of the Attitudes of Independent Telephone Company Managers in Texas About Management Consultants and Their Work[2]

Statements	Responses (n=30)		
	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	No Opinion (%)
Management consultants should always provide a contract which specifies financial terms and performance schedules	95	5	0
Management consultants should act in the capacity of advisors	87	10	3
Management consultants should act as catalysts to management toward improvement	90	10	0
Management consultants should be accountable for their recommendations	95	5	0
The recommendations of management consultants should accomplish measureable results	95	5	0

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[1] Robert N. Carter and Joan C. Baron and Katherine Illsley, "Survey Reveals Directions Toward Improved Management Consultant-Client Relations," unpublished manuscript, Southwest Texas State University, March, 1978.

[2] Ibid.

The selected statements and responses presented in Table I deal with the presence of a contract, partial job definition as it might appear in the contract, and attitudes about the accountability of consultants. The attitude of this group of managers is overwhelmingly favorable about the presence of the contract and some of its content. Ninety five percent of the respondents agreed with the statement that management consultants should provide a contract and that this contract should specify financial terms and performance schedules. Eighty seven percent agreed that management consultants should act as advisors. Ninety percent agreed that management consultants should act as catalysts to management toward improvement. When given the statement that "management consultants should be accountable for their recommendations," 96 percent agreed. Ninety six percent also agreed with the statement that, "the recommendations of management consultants should accomplish measurable results." These statements identify subject areas where clear, concise, understandable communication is a must to successful consultant-client relations.

TECHNICAL REQUIREMENTS

One should strive to satisfy certain technical objectives when the written contract is prepared. Meeting these goals will enable the writer and the reader to communicate better. Some of these are:

Clarity
Information and thought content
Organization
Readability
Words
Sentences
Paragraphs
Writing to satisfy readers' needs[3]

We shall not attempt an elaborate and specific discussion of each of these objectives here; however, we shall make some general remarks about them especially as we think they might apply to the group to whom this article is directed.

The contract must be written to and for the client, it must be readable by the client, and the content must include certain thoughts and information. One must strive for a simple and a common language as words, sentences, and paragraphs should be so precise and simple that they can be easily understood by the reader.

---

[3] Harold K. Mintz, "Business Writing Styles for the "70's," Business Horizons, August, 1972, pp. 83-87.

PSYCHOLOGICAL REQUIREMENTS

Perhaps the most important psychological objectives that the written contract will help the consultant achieve are the establishing of faith, confidence, and trust. The consultant may be perceived in various ways by the client. He may be seen as a savior, a 'knight in white armor.' At the other extreme, the consultant may be seen as a threat, as someone to be feared. We suggest that either of these extreme views may be a reaction to one's personality and that they can be placed in more appropriate perspective through the provisions of a written contract.

The written contract is an object which can be seen, analyzed, criticized, evaluated, and changed without involving the personalities of the consultant and the client. It serves in this way to encourage openness in communication which might other wise be blocked due to the implicit threat of personality attack. The written contract provides for the control and elimination of personality involvement thereby definitely reducing the fear response that 'experts' frequently arouse.

The written contract helps to establish faith, confidence, and trust. The preparation and presence of the written contract is an explicit identification of duties, responsibilities, schedules, and performance objectives. It verifies to the client that work will be done. It confirms that the work will be done at a certain place, in a certain way, at a certain time. It identifies the beginning and the end, and it specifies the results to be obtained.

The written contract is a document of detail, legally and technically. At least as important, however, is that the written consulting contract is a certificate of honor. The consultant announces credibility with it. The consultant discloses, proclaims, and declares integrity with the written contract. Baron and Illsley addressed the significance of the desirability of communicating this attitude in their survey. They asked subjects to respond to the statement, "Management consultants maintain high ethical standards." Only 63 percent agreed that management consultants maintain high ethical standards.

Simultaneously, these researchers discovered a positive attitude about consultants' performance. One hundred percent of the respondents agreed that management consultants can be useful in helping firms improve; 89 percent agreed that management consultants can halp make significant improvements, and 81 percent believe that consultants' recommendations are generally valid and practical.[4]

Baron and Illsley discovered a serious credibility gap. This discovery is a contribution to the knowledge of how clients perceive consultants. One may be sure as he works in the role of a management consultant that a significant potential exists for him to be perceived with substantially less than complete approval. We must take every precaution and make every reasonable effort to combat this negative gap of confidence. Frank Williams' paper, "When We Communicate Trust," which he gave at this meeting last year, is quite informative about the establishment of a trusting relationship. "Trust," says Williams, "makes possible shared feelings of closeness, of friendship . . . it reduces fear and threat."[5] We think that the written contract, treated as a record of responsibility and as a certificate of honor and integrity, can substantially communicate faith, confidence, and trust.

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[4] Idem. Carter, Baron, and Illsley.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Personalize each contract. Disregard the standardized legal form. It is often impossible to read and comprehend due to its format and content. The kinds of words and phrases used by the attorney's secretary when she takes the contract straight from the manual does exactly what we do not want to do. It often focuses total attention on technicalities forsaking the objective of empathy and readability.

Use jargon free language and include all necessary details. It is not necessary to use academic or technical language or legalese. Forget about whereas, now therefore, covenants and agreements, hereto, hereunto, affixes, hereinafter set forth, hereby, herein, and therein. These just confuse. Use simple language.

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[5] Franklin S. Williams, "When We Communicate Trust," Proceedings: Southwest American Business Communication Association, Spring, 1978 pp. 57-63.

APPENDIX

CONTRACT FOR SERVICES

This agreement is between the Home Federal Savings and Loan Association, 77 Forsyth St., N.W., Atlanta, Georgia, later referred to as the Client, and Robert N. Carter, Ph.D., Athens, Georgia, later referred to as the Consultant. The period of this contract is for one year beginning on the date shown at the end of this agreement.

The Consultant will provide advice, consultation, and training in the area of personal selling of savings associations financial services. The Consultant shall specifically advise, consult and train Client personnel in the activities of sales planning, scheduling, measuring, reporting, prospecting, and personal salesmanship.

The Consultant shall provide the Client with advice, consultation, and training as is desirable from time to time. These services shall be continuously available from the Consultant in the forms of extended on site visits, short consultations, and telephone conversations. The extended visits shall be according to some reasonable schedule equivalent to but not necessarily limited to three days at the beginning of the program, and then one to two day visits at intervals of approximately 1 month, 3 months, with the 7th month, and 12th month being optional. A tentative schedule of extended visits shall be attached to this contract. These visits shall be used to the Client's advantage and may be for the purposes of sales planning, sales analysis, sales training, and sales retraining.

The Client shall limit the number of personnel in any training session to 14 people unless prior agreement is made with the Consultant.

The Client shall provide secretarial help as is necessary to the Consultant. The secretary will be used for typing, reproducing, and collating training materials and forms to be used in training, reporting, and record keeping.

The Client may reproduce and adjust forms introduced by the Consultant, but the Client may not reproduce these forms for use outside the immediate business and the forms may not be used outside the immediate business for any purpose whatsoever including example, demonstration, and education, without the written permission of the Consultant. The Client may not reproduce the training material introduced and used by the Consultant for any purpose without the written consent of the Consultant.

The Client shall pay the Consultant Honorarium according to the following schedule:

March 12	$2,033.34
May 1	833.34
June 1	233.34
July 1	833.34
August 1	233.34
September 1	233.34

Honorarium for the seventh and twelfth month optional meetings shall be $500.00 per day if these meetings are held.

Expenses for food, lodging, and travel are to be paid in addition. The Consultant shall provide the Client with proper receipts for such expenses. Mileage shall be billed at $.13 per mile.

The Client and the Consultant shall try to work together in the true spirit of Client/Consultant endeavors. The relationship shall be of the highest ethical nature, and it shall be supportive from each point of view. Neither party shall give any information whatsoever to competitors or other potentially interested parties about plans, strategies, methods, activities, or results without the other party's written permission. Results of this program may be used by the Consultant to further promote the Consultant's business but must be used in such a way to be discrete and not to identify the Client without prior written permission of the Client.

Date of this agreement____

For the Client____

For the Consultant____

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PART II
TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

CLASSROOM TRAINING MODULES IN VERBAL COMMUNICATIONS

Jill Y. Smith, East Texas State University
Robert L. Smith, East Texas State University

ABSTRACT

Verbal communication and decision-making modules for the business communication classroom are described. The modules cover the following areas: non-verbal communication, perception, language, listening, feedback techniques, and decision-making skills. The self-contained exercise used in the non-verbal communication module is developed completely and may be adapted to a classroom setting. Students actively participate in the exercise and experience both non-verbal communication and verbal statements combined with non-verbal communication. They have an opportunity to speak and to see how it feels to ave their ideas supported, rejected, or ignored. The exercise is called PAL and various behavior patterns associated with good communication are labeled PAL. Negative behavior patterns are called BLOCKER: indifferent communication is labeled HO-HUM. Students are encouraged to transfer their learning outside the classroom.

NEED FOR VERBAL COMMUNICATION TRAINING

Businessmen desire their employees to be as skilled in verbal communication as they are in written communication. Often business students receive no formal training in small group discussion, in listening skills, in understanding non-verbal messages, or in decision-making. Business communication classes are charged with developing students' ability to express themselves through written documents. It may be that teachers are failing to include training in 90% of the communication taking place in the world of work—verbal communication.

DEVELOPMENT OF VERBAL COMMUNICATION TRAINING MODULES

In an effort to combine research and teaching methods from business education and guidance, the authors created a series of self-contained teaching modules in verbal communication. Modules were developed in the following areas: non-verbal communication, perception, language, listening, feedback techniques, and decision-making. The cognitive information presented to the students aids them in understanding elementary communication concepts while recognizing the complexities involved with human interactions. Experiences are provided in each module in which students participate. In keeping with the simple-to-complex progression to learning, the experiences focus upon one particular dimension of verbal communication.

Students learn how each individual perceives differently through experiencing their own differences in perception. They hear a tape recording and then recognize that their listening skills are defective as they are unable to retain much information. Group decision-making skills are developed through a simulated situation which demands small groups to reach a decision; the individuals often must compromise; they realize that all group members begin with different values. The non-verbal communication experience which will involve all class members is discussed below.

NON-VERBAL TRAINING ACTIVITY

The non-verbal training activity is called PAL (Positive Active Leadership) and originates from a bicentennial grant to develop leadership skills. It was designed for high school students under the leadership of Mr. Ray Howard in Rockwall, Texas. The authors adapted the original script to be used in a 50 minute class meeting in business communication.

Various non-verbal behavior patterns are given labels for simplicity in presentation and in learning. PAL behaviors include: looking directly at the speaker; paying attention to the speaker, and nodding the head. BLOCKER behaviors are the opposite of PAL and include: looking down or away from the speaker, wandering eyes, and shrugging shoulders. HO-HUM behaviors indicate boredom or a non-caring attitude and they are communicated by blank stares and expressionless facial features.

These behavior patterns and their non-verbal expressions are written on the board. Students are divided into groups of five; the group members rotate the position of speaker and the speaker's chair always has the back toward the board. The teacher points to the various behavior patterns while the speaker talks. By pointing, the teacher indicates how group members should act toward the speaker. After two or three students have had the opportunity to speak, the teacher directs discussion on how speakers felt when they were supported, rejected, or ignored.

VERBAL STATEMENTS COMBINED WITH NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Before the session is completed, the teacher notes that non-verbal communication is most often augmented through verbal statements. Simple statements can be divided according to PAL, BLOCKER, or HO-HUM classifications. The teacher writes PAL verbal statements on the board;

"That's great," "Fine," "I agree," "Good." In writing BLOCKER verbal statements, the teacher mentions that these are judgmental and negative. BLOCKER verbal statements are illustrated by "That's wrong," "You don't know what you are talking about," and "No way." A typical HO-HUM statement is, "I don't care."

The remaining group members will now speak and the rest of the group will demonstrate, as the teacher indicates, both verbal and non-verbal PAL, BLOCKER, and HO-HUM behaviors.

REFLECTIVE AND QUESTIONING STATEMENTS

Specific verbal communication techniques may be introduced here to facilitate good communication; to encourage genuine understanding and goodwill among co-workers. One technique is called REFLECTIVE STATEMENTS. In doing this, the listener simply reflects or repeats in his/her own words what another person says.

The second technique is the use of QUESTIONING STATEMENTS. One may use questions to clarify, encourage, and further understand another person. Asked in a positive way, questioning statements will never threaten or place another individual on the defensive. On the contrary, they make the speaker feel appreciated and respected; the person asking the questions will, in turn, be likely to be listened to when he or she speaks.

If class time permits, the teacher may divide the class into triads. A pre-selected topic, somewhat controversial, has been selected; one person is to take one side, the other takes the opposing view. As they talk, they must use good PAL non-verbal behaviors and combine them with reflective and questioning statements. Students are instructed to use these statements before they state their own opinion. The third member of the group observes the process and prompts the process and prompts the participants to follow the rules.

CLASSROOM LEARNING TRANSFERRED TO OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

The classroom training module in non-verbal communication, combined with verbal statements, serve to show students how it feels to be supported, to be put-down, to have ideas heard, to be regarded as a part of the woodwork. If learned effectively, the awareness and the good feedback techniques will be transferred outside the classroom. Ask students to consciously practice PAL behaviors with their friends, in their work environments, and in their next committee meeting. It would be beneficial to plan some additional classroom time to discuss their experiences.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS: A TECHNIQUE OF TEACHING

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ABSTRACT

The probability of understanding the concept of a five-man organizational communication pattern can be increased by using a small group activity where students participate in groups of five persons.

Using the "Y", "Star", "Radial", and "Hierarchical" patterns, each group is arranged into a specific pattern for this involvement. Each participate has note paper, a writing instrument, and a styrofoam cup containing five marbles of various colors.

The objective is for each person to use prescribed channels of an assigned communication pattern to determine, by writing notes, the constant marble color in the cup of each group member. A follow-up discussion elicits advantages and disadvantages of each of the communication systems.

INTRODUCTION

What teaching technique will help students to understand which communication pattern is most effective in an organization? To answer this question, the authors have decided to use an operations research approach whereby a model of four organizational patterns are set up for student participation in the patterns.

For our purposes, the "Y" pattern, the "Star" pattern, the "Radial" pattern, and the "Hierarchical" pattern are the terms chosen for the patterns designated.

Small groups of five students each are formed for participation in using the actual communication channels. All communication within a group will be by written form through the assigned organizational communication pattern. As a result of their involvement in this communication activity, students will be able to discuss advantages and disadvantages of each pattern and decide which system is the most effective in an organization.

The purpose of this article is to inform teachers about an organizational communications game in which students participate to increase the probability of the students learning of the concepts involved. Although various patterns of communication could be tried, the four patterns previously mentioned will be used.

PROCEDURES

The first step in presenting the technique is to acquaint the students with the four communication patterns to be followed. This can be done most efficiently by preparing transparencies to show the patterns or by using the chalkboard. Each circled alphabetic letter in each pattern represents a student who will be participating in the communication channel.

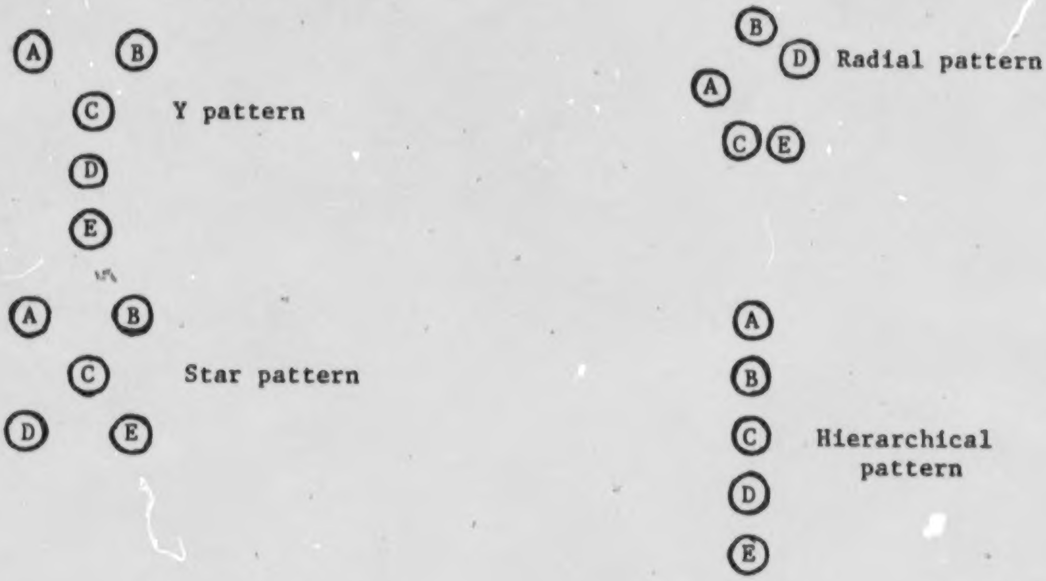

Figure 1

After the communication channels have been explained for each of the four patterns, the class is divided into groups, five persons per group. Each person in each group will be one person in the communication pattern as designated by one of the alphabetic letters on the pattern. This letter identification will indicate to each individual his/her involvement in the communication pattern. The teacher (or leader) will assign one of the four communication patterns to each group and ascertain that each group member has paper for note writing, a pen or pencil, and a styrofoam cup containing five marbles.

The styrofoam cups have been prepared and stacked for each group prior to beginning this activity. Each cup contains marbles of various colors. For instance, for group 1, Cup A may contain 2 black marbles, 1 green, 1 white, and 1 red. (See Figure 2)

After the necessary materials have been acquired, the rules of the activity are explained. First the instructor will assign a definite communication pattern, such as the "Radial" pattern, to one group, the "Star" to another group, and so on. Thus, each group may be operating on a completely different pattern or, all groups may be on one network such as the "hierarchical", at the same time, depending on the instructor's objective. Second, students are informed that all communication will be written and will be channeled according to the pattern assigned. The no talking rule will be stressed since this is easy to forget during the excitement of the game. Third, the students are told the objective of the game: By written communication within the group, according to the assigned group pattern of communication (Star, Hierarchical, etc.), the group is to determine the one color that all members have in their cups. When the group reaches this objective, each member of that group raises a hand to signify that knowledge.

Figure 2 presupposes an observer is looking into the styrofoam cups (labeled A,B,C,D,E) of one particular group. The color of each marble within each cup is indicated B,W,G,Y,R as shown by the Key. The players, of course, do not have the advantage of the observer, for each is permitted to look only into his/her own cup.

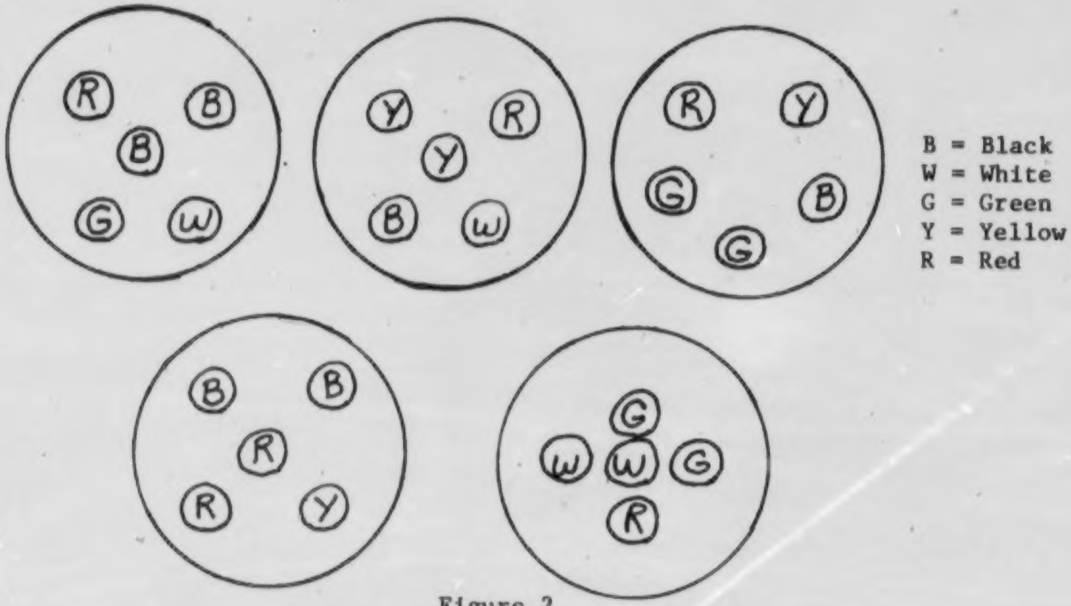

Figure 2

The five cups represent the five individuals who are looking into their own cups. No one is allowed to look at another person's cup, which is just like a poker hand. By passing notes, they now try to discover what the one color is that they all have. Obviously, the answer is R (Red), but remember they have to find this out according to the pattern, (Y, Radial, etc.), they have been placed in. The game is over when all five persons raise their hands signifying knowledge of the common color.

Follow-up:

The instructor may now conduct a discussion to determine from the students the advantages/disadvantages of the particular pattern of communication they were in and compare their observations with some conclusions.

Bavelas, 1950;[1] Leavitt, 1951;[2] and Shaw, 1954;[3] for example, indicate that the centralized networks (wheel, (Star), chain, (hierarchical), and Y) appear to be more efficient than the decentralized networks (such as the circle, (radial), this seems to be particularly true when the problems are rather simple in nature.

Shaw[4] also found that leaders emerged most often and most quickly in wheel networks.

These few examples give some of the types of ideas that could be used as a basis for establishing concepts in organizational communications.

SUMMARY

Involving students in simulation will increase the probability of their learning and retaining a concept. The authors have explained and illustrated a technique by which instructors can involve students to increase that probability of learning and retaining in the area of organizational communication patterns.

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[1] A. Bavelas, "Communication Patterns in Task-Oriented Groups," Journal of the Accoustical Society of America, 22 (1950), 725-730.

[2] H.J. Leavitt, "Some Effects of Certain Communication Patterns on Group Performance," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 46 (1951), 38-50.

[3] M.E. Shaw, "Some Effects of Problem Complexity upon Problem Solution Efficiency in Different Communication Nets," Journal of Experimental Psychology, 48 (1954), 211-217.

[4] M.E. Shaw, "Some Effects of Unequal Distribution of Information upon Group Performance in Various Communication Nets," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 49 (1954), 547-553.

PUTTING A SQUARE PEG INTO A ROUND HOLE: COMMUNICATION MODELS AND THEIR APPLICATIONS

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C. Kendrick Gibson, University of Wisconsin-La Crosse

ABSTRACT

For years academicians have utilized communication models in the classroom environment as an acceptable vehicle for explaining the communication process. However, industry continues to report the necessity for improved communication skills from college and university graduates. Graduates must not only learn to understand the communication process, but perhaps, of even greater significance, they must experience, or "feel" the communication process. Bridging the gap between theory (through communication models) and practice (their application) is an extremely formidable and challenging task for educators. The purpose of this paper is to help university professors of communication to better bridge this gap.

To accomplish this an integrated communication model is developed, drawing from the traditional communication models of the 1940's and 1950's. This more comprehensive model is then examined from a systems prospective. The case approach is utilized as the method of application by helping the student actually experience his understanding of the communication process. Therefore, the gap is better bridged between theory and practice. Actual mini-cases are presented and examined from a systems approach utilizing the derived communication model.

INTRODUCTION

> Harlow (1953) has shown that monkeys will persist in solving puzzles for many days. One monkey, who was presented with a square peg and a round hole, persisted for months in trying to get the two to fit together. (The monkey finally died of perforated ulcers.)[1]

Could it be that teachers of communication, in trying to utilize communication models to "teach" effective communications, are experiencing a similar plight? Can one "teach" the communication process simply by presenting and discussing a communication model?

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[1] Edward E. Lawler, Motivation In Work Organizations (Monterey, California; Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc. 1973) 19

Before this question can be answered with any accuracy, it seems only logical that first the word "teach" be defined. One approach to this delineation would be to relate teaching to the level of learning (or hierarchy of learning) desired by the teacher. If the objective is merely familiarity with the subject matter, then one might be on fairly safe ground to answer the question in the affirmative. However, if the objective is to reach the understanding, or even application levels of learning, then to answer in the affirmative would seem much more risky.

The communication process can be taught in such a manner that students can reach the higher levels of learning--even to the application level. Therefore, teachers of communication as well as their students will experience less anxiety (and fewer ulcers) in the learning process. An integrated communication model, systems theory, and the case method are combined to form a teaching package that can better assist the teacher of communication in reaching what the authors feel should be his objective: to help prepare the student to communicate effectively in the work environment. Figure 1 illustrates these relationships and becomes the framework for this paper.

AN INTEGRATIVE COMMUNICATION MODEL

In the context of this paper, a model will be defined as a representation of the real world. The verbal-pictorial model developed will be an attempt at approximating[2] the communication process as it occurs between sender and receiver. It is integrative in the sense that it has been derived after a study of the classical verbal-pictorial communication models of the 1940's and 1950's. The model is illustrated in Figure 2.

Beginning with the sender, or transmitter, the message (either verbal or non-verbal) is sent through a clear channel to the receiver, who decodes the received message, then encodes it and returns his encoded message back to the sender through some feedback channel. Expanding on Thayer's[3] definition of communication, ". . . taking something into

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[2] The use of the phrase ". . . an attempt at approximating" has been used to emphasize a major weakness in model building--few models, if any, have been developed that include all variables, objects, events, systems, or processes. This is especially true in the area of communications, with the tremendous number of variables that have an effect on the communication process.

[3] Lee Thayer, Communication and Communication Systems (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1968), 28

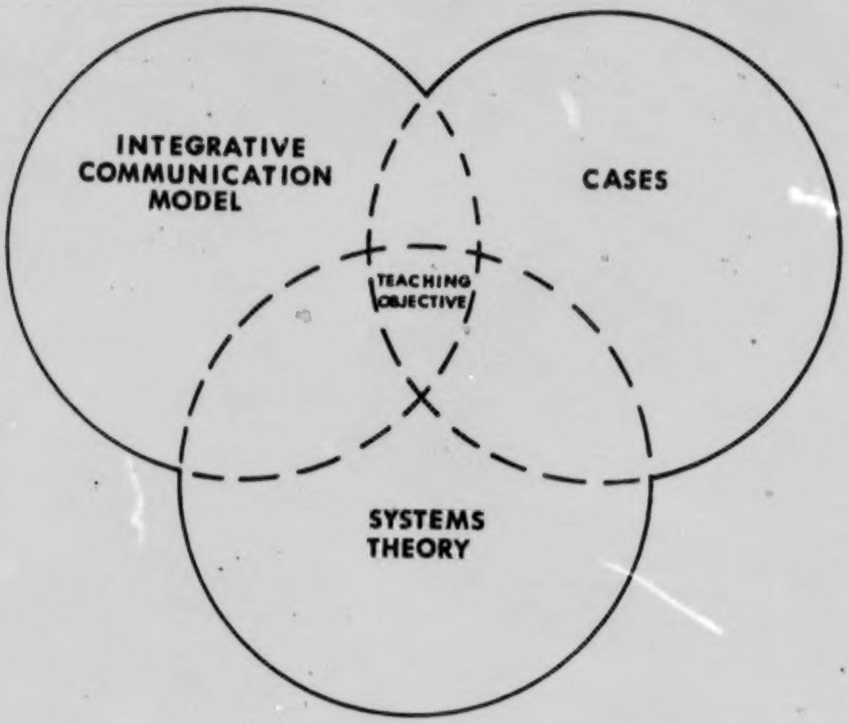
INTEGRATIVE COMMUNICATION MODEL
CASES
TEACHING OBJECTIVE
SYSTEMS THEORY

FIGURE 1

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF COMMUNICATION TEACHING PACKAGE

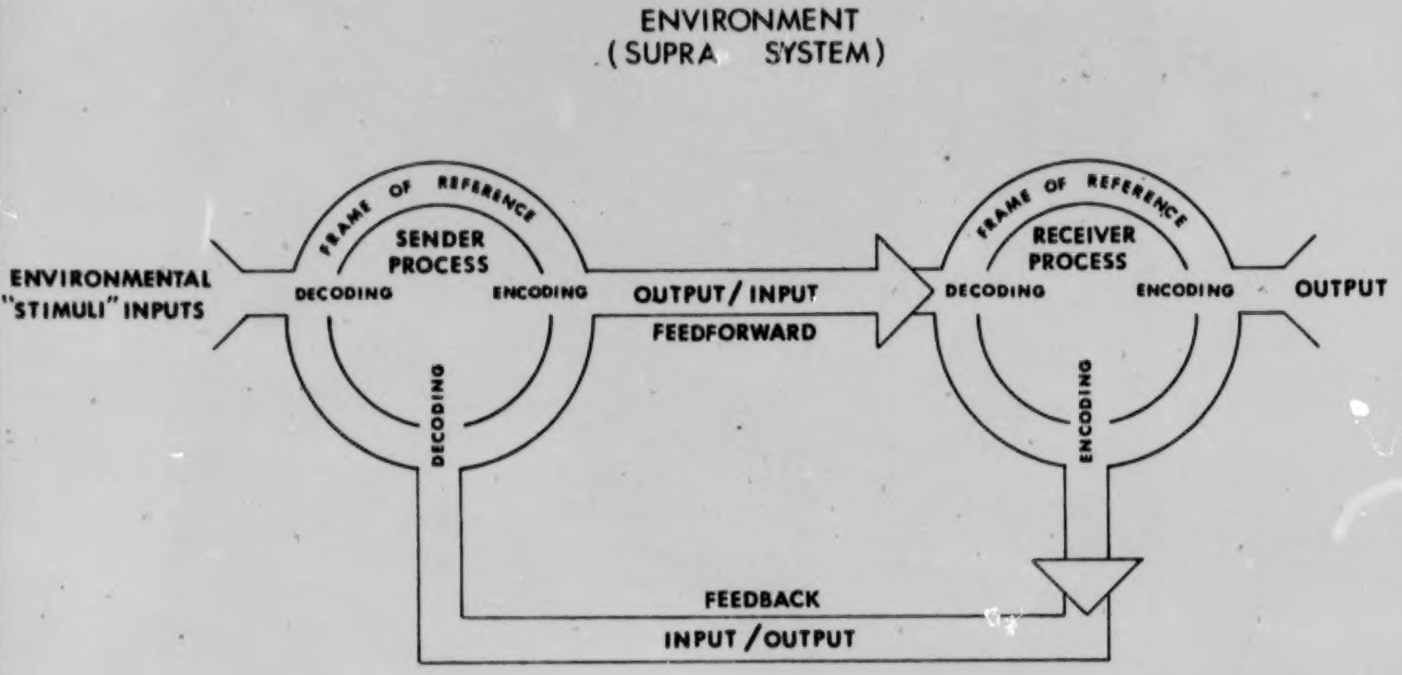
ENVIRONMENT
(SUPRA SYSTEM)
ENVIRONMENTAL "STIMULI" INPUTS
FRAME OF REFERENCE
SENDER PROCESS
DECODING
ENCODING
DECODING
OUTPUT/INPUT
FEEDFORWARD
FRAME OF REFERENCE
RECEIVER PROCESS
DECODING
ENCODING
ENCODING
OUTPUT
FEEDBACK
INPUT/OUTPUT

FIGURE 2
AN INTEGRATED COMMUNICATION MODEL:
A SYSTEMS PERSPECTIVE

account," students might be reminded at this point that effective communication" occurs when the receiver takes into account the same message the sender wanted to send.

Prior to introducing the model to the student, the instructor should review some of the classical communication models, emphasizing their respective advantages and limitations. This review should help the student to better understand the derived integrative model.

The communication process begins at a point in time when the sender receives stimuli which he decodes first, and then encodes for transmittal purposes to the receiver. Osgood was one of the first to recognize this in describing his "communication unit," where each person (sender or receiver) both decode first, followed by the encoding process.[4] Johnson[5] also seemed to recognize this decode/encode process per unit even though he didn't reference this terminology. Previous models recognized the encoding process to be performed only by the sender and the decoding process only by the receiver. The Shannon-Weaver[6] model is one classic example.

Both the sender and receiver units are surrounded by their own "frame of reference." This very important aspect of the model was first expressed in Schramm's model,[7] where he speaks of the accumulated "field of experience" of each individual trying to communicate. The closer the two individuals' frames of reference are, the greater the probability of effective communication. The Ayer[8] and Cherry[9] models also seem to express the significance of a common frame of reference in effective communication in their "co-orientation" concept.

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[4] Charles E. Osgood (ed.), "Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research Problems," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 49 (October, 1954), Morton Prince Memorial Supplement, 2.

[5] Wendell Johnson, "The Fateful Process of Mr. A Talking to Mr. B," Harvard Business Review, 31 (January-February, 1953), 50.

[6] Claude L. Shannon and Warren Weaver, The Mathematical Theory of Communication (Urbana: The University of Illinois Press, 1949), 98.

[7] Wilbur Schramm, "How Communication Works," in The Process and Effects of Mass Communication (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1955), pp. 4-8.

[8] A. J. Ayer, "What is Communication?", in Studies in Communication (London: Martin, Secker and Warburg, 1955), p. 24-25.

[9] Colin Cherry, "Communication Theory-and Human Behavior" in Studies in Communication (London: Martin, Secker and Warburg, 1955), p. 50

The messages transmitted to and from the two communication units (sender and receiver) are brought together through appropriate "feed-forward" and "feedback" channels. Thayer[10] has taken these two concepts into account in his models.

Finally, the model illustrates the importance that the communication environment has on the communication process. The Westley and Maclean[11] model contributes the concept of "selective perception," relating the interrelations of events occurring in one's environment and his own frame of reference which results in a "filtering" process. This, in turn, greatly affects one's decoding process. From this last segment of the model, the open systems implications inherent in this integrative model are partially revealed through the effects that these environmental inputs have on the sender system.

MODEL APPLICATION

According to Deutsch, models have four very distinct functions: an organization function; a heuristic function; a predictive function; and finally, a measurement function.[12] Discussing and explaining models (such as the one used in this paper) are excellent tools that have been used in the classroom to fulfill both the organization and heuristic functions. It helps the student better organize the rather disjointed parts of the process and increase his perceptual set and subsequent understanding of the process. Its heuristic value applies to the influence previous models have had on the newer, more complete models that have been developed since the 1940's.

Both of these functions have helped in reaching the familiarity, and possibly understanding, levels of learning previously mentioned. However, in keeping with this paper's original purpose, an attempt must be made to now go beyond this organization, or heuristic model function (leading to familiarity and understanding levels of learning) and move into the model functions of prediction and measurement--i.e., the application level of learning. Figure 3 illustrates this relationship between model functions, levels of learning, and teaching techniques.

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[10] Thayer, op. cit., 62

[11] Bruce H. Westley and Malcolm S. MacLean, Jr., "A Conceptual Model for Communications Research," Audio-Visual Communication Review, 3 (Winter, 1955), 4-7.

[12] Karl W. Deutsch, "On Communication Models in the Social Sciences," The Public Opinion Quarterly, 16 (Fall, 1952), 357-361.

FIGURE 3

Relationship Between Model Functions,
Levels of Learning and Teaching Techniques

Model Functions	Levels of Learning	Teaching Technique
Organization Heuristic	(1) Familiarity (2) Understanding	Presentation and Discussion of Derived communication model
Predictive Measurement	(3) Application	Application of model to cases using systems approach

In order to accomplish this objective, the authors have suggested the case method as the device for reaching this third and highest level of learning--application. Before going into this suggested method of application, two preparatory areas of explanation must be understood in order that the full use of this methodology can be exercised.

Learning and the Role of the Teacher

Often academicians are so concerned with the model and its components that in teaching they forget the purpose of such a course--to provide insights into situations thay may arise and an opportunity to "feel" the pressures that can exist in a business environment as a result of inadequate communications. The approach suggested here is that knowledge itself is inadequate without the understanding of the utilization of that knowledge. As so aptly explained by Joseph C. Bailey, teachers should be attempting to build a desire in their students to develop a professional attitude and an approach to allow a balancing of skill and knowledge.[13]

In order to accomplish such a goal, a "sense of mission" is required on the part of the teacher evidenced by a dedication to achieve a balance between knowledge and use.[14] In order to impart wisdom the process must build with theory in order to insure that everyone understands the terminology and is operating on the same base, or frame of reference. Then the process should build on that base with a variety of teaching methods. The systems approach and case method are suggested as building blocks in this paper.

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[13] Joseph C. Bailey, "On the Balance Between Skill and Knowledge", in Organizational Behavior and Administration, Cases and Readings, P. R. Lawrence, L. B. Barnes and J. W. Lorsch, editors, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Ill., 1976, pp. 13-18.

[14] John E. Coleman, "Dedication and Discipleship: The Learning Process," Humanitas, Vol. 11, No. 3 (November 1975), pp. 249-262.

A Systems Perspective

The systems concept has been discussed so much that an attempt to review it or modify it will not be made here. However, an excellent narrative on its benefits, characteristics, and applications to management can be examined in a paper published by the President and Fellows of Harvard College.[15] The purpose of emphasizing a systems concept of thinking is to lead the student to discover how communications fits into the attainment of organizational success. The systems approach can show how a communication breakdown in one segment of the process can have an effect on other areas of the process, i.e., the segments are all interrelated. In addition it can show the effect a communication failure has on the total organization success or failure.

As in all systems models emphasis is placed upon the inputs, processes, and outputs of the systems under study. To utilize the concept in a communications context, three inputs are typically discussed in class-the situation and task environment of the business, organizational structure influences upon the individual and communications, and interpersonal influences. Of course, these are only some of the environmental stimuli which will have a direct bearing upon the process of communicating. Following a presentation of these inputs, the importance of the frame of reference is emphasized. The authors have found that a review of behavioral subjects such as personality development, self concept, and development of personal goals are helpful to get the student to recognize how important the frame of reference is to successful communications. To help the student gain a better understanding of his own frame of reference, educational films concerning personal goal development and setting have been successfully used. In addition, a short seminar on interpersonal relations can be presented to help the student recognize his own shortcomings and needs in communications skills as well as the need for improvement. By following this format, the student receives a good basis in communications theory and the interrelatedness of the individual in the business environment. Cases are then used to allow the student a chance to "experience" communications problems in business and relate them to these theoretical foundations.

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[15] Stephen A. Allen, "Behavioral Science Knowledge and Administrative Skills: An Introduction to Human Behavior in Organizations," A case prepared and published by The President and Fellows of Harvard College, 1969.

Case Utilization

The use of cases has received attention from both its proponents and its critics.[16] In this approach cases are selectively used to illustrate communication breakdowns and how achievement of corporate objectives may be blocked by such situations. Furthermore, cases are selected to illustrate the influences of environmental inputs and individual processes upon the firm. The students, therefore, have an opportunity to personally discover some of the underlying communication causes of organizational conflict and to suggest appropriate solutions. The role of the instructor in this phase is to remind the participants of theoretical foundations and to guide student solutions toward the learning objective. To illustrate, two case abstracts and a brief analysis of each are presented below. It should be mentioned at this point that the teacher should use only the cases which he feels are the most appropriate. However, enough variety in case selection should be utilized in order to cover the major segments of the communication process as illustrated in the model used by the teacher.

Case Abstract A:

FROM DISEQUILIBRIUM TO DISEQUILIBRIUM[17]

The administrator of a 160-bed short-term community hospital contacted university professors to assist his organization in adapting to an ongoing major facility expansion program. The organizational development researchers examined the hospital's climate and together with the administrator agreed to utilize group decision-making technologies in obtaining information from hospital employees about their apprehensions toward the facility expansion. The administrator would then take this employee feedback information and implement tactics to help in reducing these imaginary or real apprehensions. After the intervention strategy was implemented and data collected, the researchers wrote their report and submitted it to the anxiously awaiting administrator. About this time the administrator became aware of a major problem in the new facility's construction and diverted his attention to negotiations with construction contractors, sub-contractors, architects, engineers, and lawyers. The administrator never got around to implementing the agreed upon tactics for reducing employee anxiety toward the organizational change. The hospital construction was completed, and the hospital moved from a condition of disequilibrium to a condition of disequilibrium.

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[16] William F. O'Dell, "And Once Again. . .The Case Method Revisited", Collegiate News and Views, Vol. 29, No. 2 (Winter 1975-1976), pp. 17-21.

[17] Daniel S. Cochran and Donald R. Latham, "From Disequilibrium to Disequilibrium," Intercollegiate Case Clearing House, Soldiers Field, Boston, Mass., 1977

This mini-case, or its full version, can be utilized to help the student "feel" the effect that unforeseen environmental conditions can have on the communication process in an actual organizational setting. The administrator's decoding of the new environmental stimuli (the construction problem) causes his previous encoding plans, calling for anxiety reducing tactics based on the research findings, not to materialize. The student is better able to see the effect environmental stimuli can have on the communication process and subsequently, the severe effect it can have on the total organizational system. Hence, the communication model begins to take on much more meaning.

Case Abstract B:

AMERICAN RSI, INC.[18]

American RSI, Inc. is located in an active real estate market in northwest Louisiana and provides a variety of services and products including aluminum siding, insulation, storm windows and doors, fencing and various aluminum building products. In addition insulation has grown in importance, and the firm provides blown loose-fill and batt insulation for new construction and remodeling jobs in the home market.

The firm is owned by Clarence Baker, who is 65 years old and has been actively running the business since 1960. Recently, his son Phil Baker has joined his father after completing his enlistment in the U. S. Navy. For several months Phil and his father have been having frequent arguments over the direction of the firm for the future, purchasing, and responsibilities. As a result, Phil now stays in the office most of the day obtaining new business primarily by telephone inquiries from telephone book advertisements. His father continues to be responsible for the crews as they install various products. Sales have not grown, and the firm's profits are low, if any are made at all. Mr. Baker allows few records to be kept, preferring to run the business from his "hip pocket". Tension is high in the company as well as is turnover among laborers, salesmen, and the labor crews. Phil wonders what can be done to improve the business.

This case can be used to show the particular problems associated with a father-son business and the unique conflicts that can occur in a family business as opposed to the traditional management conflict. But of even more significance, the case can be used to illustrate the importance of communicating clear goals and objectives, as well as the impact of the communicator's "frame of reference" (both the sender's and receiver's frames) upon business management.

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[18] Clyde K. Gibson and John T. Todd, "American RSI, Inc.," Intercollegiate Case Clearing House, Soldiers Field, Boston, Mass., 1977.

SUMMARY

The tripart teaching package presented in this paper has been developed to help teachers of communication to better bridge the gap between communication theory and its application in an organizational environment. An integrative communication model, systems theory, and the case method were utilized as the suggested teaching techniques to be used to achieve higher levels of learning. The communication process then becomes much more "real" than when the traditional-verbal-pictorial model is used as the only teaching technique.

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PART III
RESEARCH ACTIVITIES
IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

THE IMPACT OF SPEECH TRAINING ON ORAL COMMUNICATION IN INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

This study researched the effectiveness of speech training from the viewpoint of the graduate in industry. The 250 graduates studied received a bachelors degree from Louisiana State University during the period 1950-1967 and comprised three groups divided on the basis of advanced, basic, or no speech training. Responses from 70.4 percent of the sample provided the necessary data through a combination of interviews and detailed questionnaires.

Most of the university graduates were 30-49 years of age and completed college courses in speech. They represented all management levels. Over 45 percent worked in companies with 500 or more employees. The data elicited from them indicated that graduates with speech training (1) perceived themselves as better speakers than graduates without speech training and (2) placed more value on their speech training. Graduates with advanced speech training were more likely to be in a top management position.

INTRODUCTION

In 1972, E. T. Klemmer and F. W. Snyder reported results from a study of the time spent communicating by professional, technical, administrative, and clerical people in a communication and research laboratory. Using both questionnaires and observation by trained students to gather data, they were able to construct a breakdown of time spent in varied workday activities. This breakdown indicated members of the research sample spent fifty to eighty percent of their workday communicating. Of this time two-thirds was in oral communication.[1]

The importance of using oral communication time effectively in industry would seem obvious. Yet studies that develop methods to test the effectiveness either of oral communication training or of on-the-job communication are minimal. The problem has remained as was stated by Charles Redding:

> . . . even the most cursory scanning of the extensive literature on industrial (or organizational)

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[1] E. T. Klemmer and F. W. Snyder, "Measuring of Time Spent Communicating," The Journal of Communication, Vol. 22 (June, 1972), pp. 142-158.

> communication can leave no doubt that only a very small fraction of this literature has been produced by persons whose prime affiliation, or whose prime research interest, has been "speech."[2]

Recognizing the lack of emphasis on business speech and its end product, effective communication on-the-job, the researcher attempted to answer the question, "Is an individual's perception of his oral communication ability in the industrial setting related to his speech training?" Thus, the purpose of the study was to compare speech preparation with perception of on-the-job oral communication performance by graduates employed in industry. Since the author dealt with perceptions, the statistical information merely served descriptive purposes.

METHODOLOGY

The subjects of the study were representatives of industry in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, who received a bachelors degree from The Louisiana State University during the period 1950-1967. Permission granted by the Registrar and Alumni Offices, the researcher compiled a list of graduates from university records. Every tenth person on the Alumni lists residing in Baton Rouge in 1974 and meeting the requirements of the study composed a total sample of 250 members.

An extensive review of representative communication texts and pertinent research provided a list of principles, functions, and practices associated with business and professional speaking.[3] Collated and synthesized, these data composed the questionniare.

The questionnaire contained two sections, the first of which requested general information about the participant. This information consisted of the respondent's managerial position, company size, speech grades, speech courses completed at the university, and other speech preparation. Respondents then ranked selected speaking activities according to the frequency of the activity on-the-job.

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[2] W. Charles Redding, "The Empirical Study of Human Communication in Business and Industry," The Frontiers in Experimental Speech-Communication Research, ed. Paul L. Reid, Syracuse Univ. Press, New York, 1966, p. 49.

[3] Current speech texts tended to provide a thorough coverage of oral communication based upon introductory discussions of organizational behavior and behavioral theory. Interpersonal Communication in the Modern Organization by Ernest G. Bormann, et.al., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969, included a discussion of the communication process, management styles, and communication problems in industry. The text related business and professional speaking to the organizational environment. Presentational Speaking for Business and the Professions by William S. Howell and Ernest G. Bormann, New York, Harper and Row, 1971. focused upon the principles, methods, and types of presentational speaking. Other well-known business and professional speech texts followed similar patterns. Some combined the organizational approach of the former text with the functional approach of the latter text.

The second section of the questionnaire required the respondent to evaluate the speaking situations he experienced on-the-job. The major categories he evaluated included (1) his overall performance of each speech activity, and (2) his training in each speech activity.

Specific questions entailed the principles, functions, and practices the communicator should fulfill when involved in each speaking activity. The purpose of this section was to provide more detail as to the respondent's perceptions of his weaknesses and strengths in varied speech activities.

Selected on the basis of their management positions and size of the industries by which they were employed, nine members of the sample participated in unstructured interviews during May, 1974. Management positions represented were (1) non-management, or graduates in staff and support positions; (2) supervisory management, or managers responsible for operative personnel; (3) middle management, or assistant managers in primary divisions; and (4) top management, or managers in the highest positions of authority.[4] Industry size was categorized as (1) small, or under 50 employees; (2) medium, or 50-449 employees; and (3) large, or over 500 employees.[5] Interviews with these subjects (1) served as a primary source of information on the effect of speech training or lack of speech training on oral communication performance, (2) acted as a sounding board for ideas for the construction of the questionnaire, and (3) acted as a pre-test group for the questionnaire. As a pre-test group, they reviewed questions and suggested revisions.

At the start of each interview, the interviewer described the scope and intent of the study to the interviewee. A list of preplanned questions stimulated discussion. Basically, participants discussed the various communication methods employed most frequently in their positions and businesses; the communications problems they encountered; their training in communication; and the layout, scope, and depth of the questionnaire. At the conclusion of each interview, the interviewee received a personal copy of the questionnaire. He reviewed the form at his convenience and made corrections or comments that enhanced the questionnaire's intelligibility, then returned it by mail to the researcher in an attached envelope. A cover letter accompanied the questionnaire, reviewing the purpose of the study and including brief instructions for evaluating the questionnaire.

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[4] Leon C. Megginson, Personnel: A Behavioral Approach to Administration, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Ill, 1972, pp. 55-57. Megginson refers the reader to "the classic statement of these responsibilities, as prepared by a special conference of high-level, practicing personnel executives," in "The Function and Scope of Personnel Administration," Personnel, Vol. 24, (July, 1974), pp. 5-8.

[5] These divisions find their basis in The Louisiana Directory of Manufacturers, State of Louisiana, Baton Rouge, La., Department of Commerce and Industry, 1972.

After receiving and reviewing all of the nine pre-tested questionnaires, the researcher judged the following revisions as appropriate:

1. Change the dichotomous format of questions and responses to a continuous format.
2. Arrange a new layout to make questions more readable.
3. Change several confusing terms.
4. Eliminate two sections which interwiewees deemed as confusing and overlapping in meaning.

On January 1, 1975, a postcard went to all sample members stating the objectives of the study and requesting their participation. The questionnaire and a cover-letter followed in four days. Since the questionnaire was to be anonymous, a number corresponding to each individual sample member appeared on a return address label attached to the enclosed envelope. The cover-letter requested the participant to complete and return the questionniare within two weeks. After this period elapsed, the numbers on the return envelopes checked against the numbers corresponding to the names of the sample members revealed the outstanding questionnaires. Follow-up letters and questionniares went to the remaining members of the sample. Of the 250 questionnaire packets mailed, 11 returned incomplete or unusable, 13 returned unopened with no forwarding address, and 50 questionnaires failed to return. The results of the study, therefore, represented the perceptions of 70.4 percent of the selected sample.[6]

ANALYSIS

The problem statement demanded an analysis of communication performance as perceived by Lousiana State University graduates in industry with (1) advanced speech training, (2) basic speech training, and (3) no speech training. A complete analysis as defined within the study should compare the perceptions of the three speech training groups in the following data categories included on the questionniare:

1. respondent evaluation of the frequency of specified speaking activities on-the-job,
2. respondent performance evaluation of specified oral activities,
3. respondent evaluation of overall speaking ability, and

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[6] Paul L. Erdos, Professional Mail Surveys, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1970, p. 144. He states, "It is nearly impossible to achieve a 100 percent response, and this is true no matter what data-gathering methods are used." While the Advertising Research Foundation recommended an eighty percent return to ensure the mail survey was comparable with interview results, Erdos set a minimum standard of fifty percent response to ensure reliability "unless it demonstrates with some form of verification that the non-respondents are similar to the respondents." In this particular study, non-respondents and respondents had similar percentages in the three speech training categories. The majority of both groups had basic speech training, with approximately eighty percent receiving basic or advanced training.

4. respondent evaluation of speech training.

As a comparative basis, two other variables added for analysis were

5. respondent speech grade average, and
6. number of courses completed by the respondent.

Three research designs provided the necessary framework required to compare each category to every other category. The first design included 36 cells representing the 36 variables describing the characteristics of the three speech training groups. Positioned along the vertical axis are the four types of management levels: (1) non-management, (2) supervisory management, (3) middle management, and (4) top management. Depicted along the oblique axis are the three levels of speech training: (1) advanced speech training, (2) basic speech training, and (3) no speech training. Finally, represented on the horizontal axis are the size of organization: (1) small, (2) medium, and (3) large. See Figure 1.

The second design provided the major data to support or refute the research hypothesis. Positioned along the vertical axis are the data categories: (1) respondent evaluation of the frequency of specified speaking activities, (2) respondent performance evaluation of specified oral activities, (3) respondent evaluation of overall speaking ability, and (4) respondent evaluation of speech training. Represented on the horizontal axis are the three levels of speech training: (1) advanced, (2) basic, and (3) no speech training. See Figure 2.

Data from the questionnaires were divided into categories based on the two factorial designs and then fed into a computer.

Each question received a specific number of response spaces on a computer coding sheet. An IBM computer tabulated coded questions using the Statistical Analysis System.[7] The purpose of this system is to provide an "integrated approach to the editing of statistical analysis of data.[8] Sequences of alphabetical, numerical, or special characters act as "data elements." The elements describe the sample and correspond to a name, place, particular year, characteristic of the sample, etc. In a series of observations, in this case each questionnaire, the specific observations repeated in each set of data elements are the variables of the the sample.[9] A simple language instructs the computer to "present, edit, transform, generate, describe or analyze data."[10]

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[7] Jolayne Service, SAS: A User's Guide to the Statistical Analysis System, Institute of Statistics, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, N.C., August, 1972, p. 1.

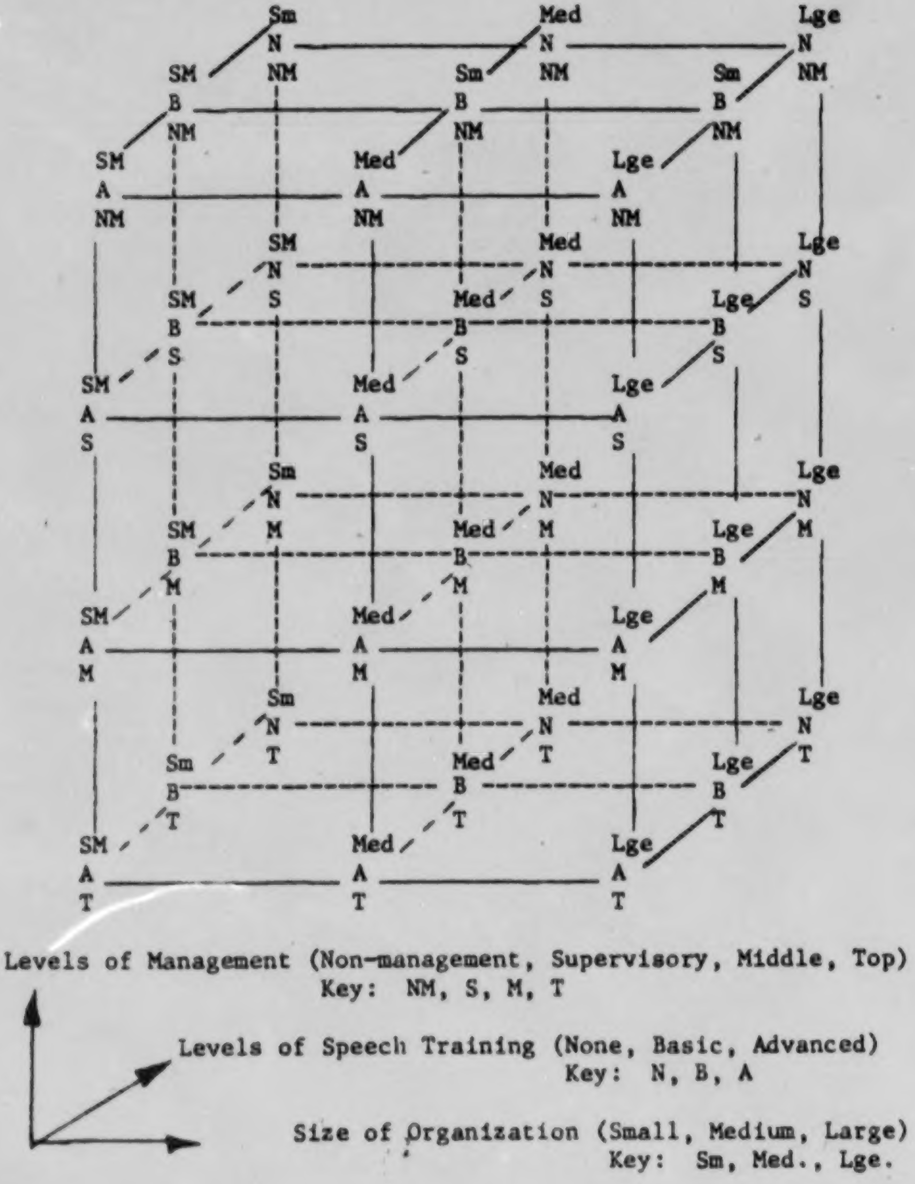
[8] Ibid.

[9] Ibid.

[10] Anthony James Barr and James Howard Goodnight, A Guide for the Development and Implementation of User Written Procedures Within the Statistical Analysis System, Institute of Statistics, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, N.C., August 1972, p. 4.

FIGURE 1

Characteristics of Respondents
Three-Dimensional Analytical
Framework for Research
3X3X4 Factorial Design


Sm N NM
Med N NM
Lge N NM
SM B NM
Sm B NM
Sm B NM
SM A NM
Med A NM
Lge A NM
SM N S
Med N S
Lge N S
SM B S
Med B S
Lge B S
SM A S
Med A S
Lge A S
Sm N M
Med N M
Lge N M
SM B M
Med B M
Lge B M
SM A M
Med A M
Lge A M
Sm N T
Med N T
Lge N T
Sm B T
Med B T
Lge B T
SM A T
Med A T
Lge A T

Levels of Management (Non-management, Supervisory, Middle, Top)
Key: NM, S, M, T

Levels of Speech Training (None, Basic, Advanced)
Key: N, B, A

Size of Organization (Small, Medium, Large)
Key: Sm, Med., Lge.

FIGURE 2

Perceptions of Respondents
Two-Dimensional Analytical
Framework for Research
3X4 Factorial Design

Levels of Training

AF	BF	NF
AP	BP	NP
AO	BO	NO
AT	BT	NT

Levels of Training (Advanced, Basic, None)
Key: A,B,N

Data Categories (Frequency of speaking activity, performance evaluation of specific speaking activities, overall speaking ability, evaluation of speech training)
Key: F,P,O,T

Variables included on the questionnaire were (1) management level, (2) size of the organization, (3) age, (4) speech training, and (5) perception of on-the-job communication performance.

The following example depicts the computer program arrangement for the observations and variables. Each "observation" in this example represents a questionnaire.

TABLE 1

Computer Program Arrangement for Observations and Variables

	Speech Training (1st var.)	Mgt. Level (2nd var.)	Co. Size (3rd var.)	Age (4th var.)
Observation 1	3	1	02	2
Observation 2	2	4	08	5
.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.
Observation 176	1	3	05	3

An observation, recorded in data elements, works in the following manner. The SAS statement, such as "IF SAS=5 Then ACT2='LISTEN,'" appears on each punched card and describes the procedure to be performed by the computer. Variables, tabulated into the various arrays, reduced to punch cards, and sorted into tables provided a program that produced (1) frequency distribution, (2) means and standard deviations, (3) medians and ranges, and (4) a variety of cross-comparisons of respondent perceptions.

A second set of variables represented relationships that might affect the findings. Gathered from student records and interviews with selected graduates, they were speech grades and overall grade-point average.

A third design provided a basis for the comparison of speech grades, the number of speech courses completed, and the self-evaluations of data by the advanced and basic speech training groups. Using a procedure designed to be used with the Statistical Analysis System, the computer printed the number of values, sum of values, mean scores, and minimum and maximum value for each variable. An example follows:

LEVEL-ADVANCED

Variable	No.	Sum	Mean	Minimum Value	Maximum Value
SPGA	18	39.6	2.200	1.0	2.3
VT	18	35.8	1.991	1.2	2.8

Key: SPGA = Speech Course Grade Average
VT = Value of Training

Using these data, the researcher attempted to determine any relationships between two or more variables. A computer printout produced correlation coefficients and significance probability between selected variables. The correlation coefficient gave the index of covariability of two variables, while the significance probability indicated the probability that the correlation would happen by chance.[11] A sample of printout follows.

TABLE 2

	AECC	AECM	AEFT	
AECC	1.000000 0.0000	0.284087 0.0070	0.019922 0.8472	Correlation Probability
AECM	0.284087 0.0070	1.000000 0.0000	0.073068 0.5033	Correlation Probability

Key: AECC = Computed Total Score for Self Evaluation of Principles, Functions and Practices of Conference Chairman
AECM = Computed Total Score for Conference Member
AEFT = Computed Total Score for Formal Talk

The statistical data served descriptive purposes only.

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[11] Taro Yamane, Statistics: An Introductory Analysis, 2nd ed., Harper & Row, New York, 1967, pp. 368-501.

RESULTS

The following results find their basis in the interview and questionnaire responses of 176 Louisiana State University graduates in industry in the Baton Rouge area. Most of these graduates were 30-49 years of age and completed college courses in speech. They represented all management levels, and over 45 percent worked in companies with 500 or more employees. Table 3 depicts the characteristics of each training group.

For personal reasons respondents may have been motivated to withhold information. Varying personal backgrounds, working environments, classroom experiences, knowledge, and abilities affected perception of communication skills. Restrictions inherent in the questionnaire limited feedback. Interpretation of certain words, phrases, or responses varied. Also, the structured responses limited the range of information that could be acquired. Finally, under the circumstances of the study, the environment could not be controlled. Results dealt with the perceptions of graduates of one university in one specific geographical area. Therefore, the study was descriptive by nature.

The data elicited, however, indicated that speech training did affect the Louisiana State University graduate's perception of his speaking ability on-the-job. The null hypothesis, that there is no relationship between speech training and the Louisiana State University graduate's perception of his oral communication performance in industry, had to be rejected. Of the sample, 16.5 percent had advanced speech training, 66.5 percent had basic speech training, and 17 percent had no speech training. Both speech training groups perceived themselves as better communicators than the graduates without speech training in 96 percent of the responses. When comparing the advanced and basic speech training groups, graduates with advanced speech training had the better score in 64 percent of the responses, while the basic speech training group had the better score in 25 percent of the responses, indicating that perception of speaking performance improves with advanced training.

All three speech training groups ranked their perception of the order of occurrence of the five speech activities as follows: (1) meetings, (2) conversation, (3) listening, (4) and (5) discussion and conferences, and (6) formal talks. As speech training increased, the number of respondents marking formal talks as one of the three most frequently experienced activities also increased--a phenomenon unique to this particular category. Kathryn Bullington Clark's study found similarly that conversation, meetings, and listening outranked formal speaking in frequency and importance.[12]

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[12] Kathryn Bullington Clark, "Oral Business Communication Needs as a Basis for Improving College Courses," Diss. University of Michigan 1968.

TABLE 3

A Comparison by Data Category of the Characteristics of the Respondents with Advanced Speech Training Basic Speech Training, and No Speech Training

Data Category	Percentage of General Sample	Percentage with Advanced Training	Percentage with Basic Training	Percentage with No Speech Training
Respondents	100%	16.477	66.477	17.046
Courses				
College	56.696	57.143	68.276	------
Company	10.714	22.449	8,966	------
Military	11.161	12.245	13.103	------
Private or Other	21.429	8.163	9.655	------
Company Size				
Small	30.682	51.724	23.077	40.00
Medium	24.432	24.138	27.350	13.333
Large	44.886	24.138	49.573	46.667
Ages				
25-29	17.614	17.241	14.530	30.00
30-39	44.886	37.932	47.863	40.00
40-49	28.409	41.379	27.350	20.00
50-59	8.523	------	10.257	10.00
60-80	0.568	3.448	------	------
Management Level				
Supervisory	27.841	10.345	33.333	23.333
Middle	21.023	27.586	19.658	20.000
Non-Mgt.	25.000	17.241	28.205	20.000
Top	26.136	44.828	18.803	36.667

Third, data findings point to higher perception of speaking abilities and higher speech grade average as indicators of graduates in top management positions. Speech training, on the whole, had little impact on whether an individual held a management position. All three groups had similar totals in the three management levels. However, the chances of being in the upper management levels increased markedly for graduates with advanced speech training. About 45 percent were in top management positions, and a total of 72 percent were in the top two levels of management. When the researcher compared management level, speech training, and speech grade average, again a marked increase in grade average occurred for graduates in top management positions with advanced speech training. These findings are supported by McKeown and Angrist who found that management level affected frequency, importance, and ease of performance of perceived communications skills.[13] Simon's study submitted that the more successful supervisor usually rated higher as a communicator.[14] His data rested upon a comparison of merit ratings and interview ratings. It would be interesting to explore the relationships between trained speech evaluation, knowledge of speaking principles, perception of speaking effectiveness, and effective management that have been neglected by these studies.

Secondary to these findings were the data derived from speech grade average which indicated a correlation between perception of speaking performance and instructor grade evaluation. Although overall grades for the basic and advanced speech training groups did not markedly differ, correlation coefficients revealed that as the graduate completed more speech courses, his grade average improved as his perception of his speaking abilities improved.

Finally, the graduate that had a better perception of his speaking performance also assigned more value to his speech training. In every speaking activity the advanced speech training group had higher mean scores for the overall evaluation of speech training. Angrist and McKeown also recognized a link between management level and the value assigned to specific speaking activities.[15]

The largest group of respondents in each of the top two management levels completed advanced speech training ranked their speech training highly, and perceived themselves as better communicators on-the-job than the other groups analyzed. These data combined reinforce the link between successful management, speech training, and the value placed upon speech training. They would seem to reiterate the axiom of Sanford and Yeager, "To the man who demonstrates that he has the ability to think through his problems effectively and speak on them persuasively go increased responsibilities and increased rewards . . ."[16]

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[13] Arthur W. Angrist, "A Study of the Communications of Executives in Business and Industry," Speech Monographs, Vol. 20, Nov. 1953, pp. 277-285; Henry Samuel McKeown, "A Study of Essential Communication Skills and Communication Activity at Various Job Levels in an Architect/Engineer Firm," Diss. Michigan State University 1975.

[14] Herbert William Simons, "A Comparison of Communication Attributes and Rated Job Performance of Supervisors in a Large Commercial Enterprise," Diss. Purdue University 1961; and R. Wayne Pace and Herbert W. Simons, "Preliminary Evaluation Report of the Purdue Basic Oral Communication Evaluation Form," Personnel Journal, Vol. 42, April 1963, pp. 191-193.

[15] Angrist and McKeown.

Further studies might attempt to compare individual perception of speaking performance to knowledge of principles, effective management, and actual speaking ability. None of the above studies has been this extensive, although each has contributed unique findings in each category. Finally, a study of graduates with advanced speech training and their progress in industry over a specified span of time, compared with graduates without speech training, would test the conclusions drawn in this study and allow further projection of the effect of advanced speech training on the individual in industry.

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[17] William Phillips Sanford and Willard Hayes Yeager, *Effective Business Speech*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York, 1960, p. 10.

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COMMUNICATION DIFFICULTIES AS PERCEIVED BY THE ACCOUNTING PROFESSION AND PROFESSORS OF ACCOUNTING

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ABSTRACT

The authors were concerned by the apparent disparity between the communications instruction given in the classroom, the accounting student's perception of what would be expected in the "real world" environment, and the accounting professional's expectations of the newly-hired employee's communication skills. The study was designed to measure the extent of these disparities, if any, and to determine if modifications should be forthcoming in instructional content, techniques, or professional expectations.

DEFINITION OF SURVEY POPULATION

The population surveyed in this study included those individuals who interact on a regular basis with recently graduated accountants (RGA) as well as RGA's themselves. Specifically, the population was defined by identifying the major employers of RGA's:

1. CPA firms
2. Corporations
3. Government agencies

In addition, accounting educators and accounting seniors were included in the survey to gain a perspective of those individuals involved in the educational process. The elements of the population are identified by the abbreviations listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Elements of Survey Population

Element	Abbreviation
CPA Firms	CPA
RGA - CPA Firms	CPA^{1}
Corporate Controller	CORP
RGA - Corporations	CORP^{1}
Federal Governmental Agencies	GOVT
RGA - Federal Governmental Agencies	GOVT^{1}
AACSB Accounting Educators	ED
AACSB Accounting Seniors	SR

SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

A stratified random sample of 292 U.S. CPA firms was selected from the member listing of the American Institute of CPA's. The random selection was modified to insure that 1) each state was represented by its approximate population proportion, 2) the mix was approximately equal between the "Big Eight," regional and local CPA firms, and 3) the mix was approximately equal between major metropolitan (population in excess of one million) and other areas. The questionnaires were addressed to the partner in charge of each office selected. These partners were requested to give an additionally-enclosed questionnaire to a RGA in that office.

All members of the top fifty "Fortune 500" listing were included in the sample. An additional 191 corporations were selected at random from the listing in Dun and Bradstreet's Million Dollar Directory (all corporations with annual sales in excess of $1 million). These questionnaires were addressed to the controllers (or financial vice-presidents) who were also requested to give an additionally-enclosed questionnaire to a RGA in that corporation.

Thirty Federal Governmental Agencies which employ large numbers of accountants were selected for the survey. The specific selection of the thirty agencies was made subjectively by the researchers. Practical limitations of the study did not allow inclusion of state or local governmental agencies. Questionnaires were addressed to the chief administrators of each agency who were also requested to give an additionally-enclosed questionnaire to a RGA in that agency.

A random selection of 288 accounting educators was made from the 1975 edition of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business listing of Faculty Personnel. Questionnaires were addressed directly to the faculty members who also were requested to give an additionally-enclosed questionnaire to an accounting senior in their school.

SURVEY RESPONSE

Questionnaires were received from 478 respondents, or 28.1% of the total sample of 1,702. This high level of response is indicative of an apparently high level of concern about the communication skills of RGA's. There is a marked difference in response rate between the different sample groups (see Table 2).

TABLE 2
Responses to Questionnaire

Group	Number	Responses	Percentage
CPA	292	122	41.8%
CPA[1]	292	101	34.6%
CORP	241	43	17.8%
CORP[1]	241	35	14.5%
GOVT	30	18	60.0%
GOVT[1]	30	13	43.3%
ED	288	77	26.7%
SR	288	69	23.9%
Total	1,702	478	28.1%

These differences are examined below in conjunction with the specific questions.

EVALUATION OF OVERALL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

The first question in the questionnaire was designed to measure the respondent's (r's) overall reaction to the communication skill of RGA's.

> 1. How would you describe the basic communication skills (oral and written) of recently-graduated accountants? (Mark only one choice in each column.)

Oral	Written
____Highly Effective	____Highly Effective
____Effective	____Effective
____Ineffective	____Ineffective
____Highly Ineffective	____Highly Ineffective

The results, as shown in Table 3, clearly show more concern with written as opposed to oral communication. Nearly one-half of the r's described written communication skills as "ineffective" or "highly ineffective" while less than one-fifth of the r's made the same distinction for oral communication.

TABLE 3
Summary Responses to Question 1

	Oral		Written	
	N	%	N	%
Highly Effective	20	4.2	4	0.8
Effective	305	76.7	243	51.5
Ineffective	84	17.6	201	42.6
Highly Ineffective	7	1.5	24	5.1
Total	416	100.0	472	100.0

TABLE 4
Responses to Question 1 (Oral)
(in %)

	CPA	CPA[1]	CORP	CORP[1]	GOVT	GOVT[1]	ED	SR
Highly Effective	4.9	4.0	4.7	2.9	5.6	7.7	1.3	5.8
Effective	72.1	78.0	88.4	77.1	88.8	69.2	77.6	72.5
Ineffective	20.5	17.0	6.9	17.1	5.6	23.1	19.8	20.3
Highly Ineffective	2.5	1.0	0.0	2.9	0.0	0.0	1.3	1.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 5
Responses to Question 1 (Written)
(in %)

	CPA	CPA[1]	CORP	CORP[1]	GOVT	GOVT[1]	ED	SR
Highly Effective	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.7	0.0	1.4
Effective	32.0	62.6	46.5	77.1	68.8	69.2	37.3	68.1
Ineffective	56.6	34.3	48.8	22.9	31.2	15.4	57.3	27.6
Highly Ineffective	9.8	3.1	4.7	0.0	0.0	7.7	5.4	2.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

These data are organized by respondent in Tables 4 and 5. It is interesting to note that the RGA's of both CPA firms and corporations perceive fewer written communication problems than do their respective employers. This relationship, however, does not appear to be the same for oral communication.

TYPES OF COMMUNICATION EFFORT

The second question was designed to measure the perception of the RGA and his employer about time spent in various types of communication skills.

> 2. What % of a recently-graduated accountant's total time is spent using a given communication skill? (Because an accountant spends a portion of his/her time in non-communication activities, the sum of your responses should be less than 100%)
>
> ____Oral Presentations
> ____Writing Letters
> ____Writing Reports (non-numerical)
> ____Writing Statements and Schedules (numerical)
> ____Writing Interoffice Memoranda

The results, as presented in Table 6, total less than 100% since the responses are expressed in terms of the RGA's total work time. It should be noted that RGA's for CPA firms, corporations, and governmental agencies all perceive they spend more time on numerical statements and scheddules than do their employers. However, this difference does not seem to exist between educators and accounting seniors.

TABLE 6
Responses to Question 2
(in mean percent)

	CPA	CPA[1]	CORP	CORP[1]	GOVT	GOVT[1]	ED	SR
Oral	10.2	9.9	9.4	8.2	9.9	9.3	9.2	10.5
Letters	3.8	4.1	5.4	5.7	5.1	5.0	5.1	6.4
Reports	8.8	11.1	10.3	9.8	12.8	14.2	10.5	11.5
Statements	31.2	39.4	27.6	41.7	31.7	43.5	30.0	31.5
Memoranda	5.4	3.3	7.1	5.4	6.7	7.4	5.7	7.3

SPECIFIC PROBLEMS AND PROPOSED TRAINING

Questions 3, 4, and 5 were designed to measure the r's perceptions of specific problem areas and suggested training for those problems. (Note that since these are rank orders, the lower numbers indicate a high level of significance and vice versa.

For each of the following questions, rank order the responses with the number 1 through 5 inclusive as follows: place a "1" before the item you feel is the most significant, a "2" before the item you feel is second most significant, a "3" before the item you feel is third most significant, a "4" before the item you feel fourth most significant, and a "5" before the item you feel least significant.

3. Among recently-graduated accountants you work with, what means of communication seems most difficult for them to utilize effectively?

____Oral Presentations
____Interoffice Memoranda
____Letters
____Reports (non-numerical)
____Statements and Schedules (numerical)

4. In what areas of communication skills do accounting students need more formal training?

____Oral Presentation
____Research and Report Writing
____Use of Grammar and Syntax
____Message Organization
____Summarizing and/or Abstracting

5. Many teaching techniques in collegiate accounting curricula are designed to aid the student in developing communication skills. In what areas of teaching in the accounting curricula do accounting students need more training?

____Formal Term Papers
____Essay Question Examinations
____Formal In-Class Oral Presentations
____Daily Numerical Assignments
____Group Discussions

The results to Question 3, as shown in Table 7, clearly identify non-numerical report writing as the most significant problem area. An interesting relationship exists between RGA's and their employers in the significance of these non-numerical reports, especially when compared to the perception differences in Question 3.

TABLE 7
Responses to Question 3
(Means of rank orders 1 to 5 where 1 = most significant)

	CPA	CPA[1]	CORP	CORP[1]	GOVT	GOVT[1]	ED	SR
Oral	3.2	2.3	2.8	2.6	3.1	2.2	2.9	2.3
Memo	3.5	3.9	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.7	3.1
Letters	2.6	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.6
Reports	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.7	1.8	2.2	1.7	2.3
Statements	3.1	3.8	4.0	3.9	4.7	4.6	3.0	3.9

The concern over written communication is reinforced by the responses to Question 4. (Table 8). The last three categories, all having to do with the written message, receive the most attention; and message organization is identified overwhelmingly as the most significant. While respondents chose to diminish its importance, oral communication without attention to message organization lacks effectiveness.

TABLE 8
Responses to Question 4
(Means of rank orders 1 to 5 where 1 = most significant)

	CPA	CPA[1]	CORP	CORP[1]	GOVT	GOVT[1]	ED	SR
Oral	4.0	3.3	3.2	2.6	3.6	2.8	3.4	2.8
Reports	3.0	3.7	3.3	3.0	2.3	2.7	2.7	2.9
Grammar	2.5	3.0	2.6	3.0	3.4	3.1	2.8	2.9
Organization	2.4	2.8	2.5	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.6	3.1
Summarizing	3.1	2.8	2.7	3.5	2.9	3.9	3.1	3.1

Responses to Question 5 (Table 9) seem contrary to previous data. Significant attention is given to the need for more formal training in oral communication.

TABLE 9
Responses to Question 5
(Means of rank orders 1 to 5 where 1 = most significant)

	CPA	CPA[1]	CORP	CORP[1]	GOVT	GOVT[1]	ED	SR
Term Papers	2.7	3.4	3.1	3.4	1.8	2.7	2.0	2.1
Essay	1.8	2.3	2.4	2.7	2.3	2.8	2.1	2.9
Oral	2.6	2.0	2.5	2.1	2.3	2.1	2.5	2.2
Numerical	4.3	4.1	3.9	3.8	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.5
Discussion	3.6	2.9	3.1	3.0	3.8	3.2	3.7	3.3

The authors suspect there are two reasons for this apparent contradiction: accounting professionals, while concerned about writing skills, feel that the proposed areas of training are inadequate; and these professionals also feel that oral presentation skills are, more properly, the province of the academic classroom while training in writing can be done in-house.

SUMMARY

It would appear that accounting educators and accounting professionals are in general agreement about the communication needs of accountants. It also is evident that there is some disagreement about how to achieve the necessary skill levels. The challenge for the educator is to devise mechanisms that require more articulation of conceptual ideas, instead of numerical manipulations, while dealing with increasing numbers of students.

ACTIVE LISTENING: AN EFFECTIVE SELLING TOOL

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports on an experiment designed to test the concept of active listening as a selling tool. The experiment was conducted in the television and stereophonic equipment department of four department stores in a Birmingham, Alabama, chain. Those departments with salespersons trained in the technique had substantially higher sales than those departments with salespersons not trained.

INTRODUCTION

Leonard Zunin in Contact: The First Four Minutes deals with two important aspects of dyadic communication: (1) greeting behavior and (2) effective transmittal of information.[1]

Dr. Zunin points out that except where the individual is born into a family, every personal relationship begins between total strangers. The most critical part of the relationship is the beginning. And, while first impressions are not completely irreversable, the beginning or initial exchange determines whether the relationship will exist or be discontinued. Despite the importance of the initial exchange which is usually a greeting, most people find it difficult to say "hello" because they have never learned to say "goodbye". That is, to say "hello" to someone, you must say "goodbye" to someone or something.[2]

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[1] Leonard Zunin, Contact: The First Four Minutes, Ballantine Books, New York, N.Y., 1972.

[2] Ibid, pp. 31-51.

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Dr. Zunin indicates that the best manner to convey information effectively to another person is through a process called F.S.Q.S. This is a subtly powerful technique based on common sense psychology. That is, two people cannot face each other, look at each other, and remain silent. One of them must speak. F.S.Q.S. means Friendly, Silent, Questioning, Stare. Use of the technique induces the other person to talk so you can listen. By engaging in active listening you can more easily determine what information the other person wants and transmit that information effectively.[3]

The concepts discussed by Dr. Zunin can be readily adapted to selling in terms of customer-retail salesperson interaction. When a customer enters a store, his emotional mood is that of an anxious child, suspicious and defensive. The way he is approached by the salesperson is a highly important factor that can determine whether or not he will actually buy. If he is greeted with a perfunctory ritual, "May I help you?" he will react with an automatic ritual, "No thanks, just looking." Both the customer and salesperson have discounted each other and thus the salesperson is automatically rejected. However, if the customer is greeted in a genuine, warm, friendly, non-commercial manner, he is likely to respond with reduced anxiety, less suspicion, and no hostility, thus making him more open to giving and receiving information about products. Greet the customer as you would greet any stranger you might meet at a party, a meeting, on an airplane, or in the theatre.

When the customer is greeted, the salesperson should have a single objective, *i.e.*, get the customer to tell him what he wants and why he wants it. To say "hello" to the customer and mean it, the salesperson usually must say "goodbye" to something else. It could be an inventory the salesperson is taking, a turntable he is adjusting, or a display he is setting up. Whatever the activity, disengage. Make the customer believe nothing is more important than he is. This nearly always evokes a positive response. When a warm acquaintance has been established, the salesperson engages in the process of active listening to seek out what information the customer needs.

The salesperson must get the customer to talk. F.S.Q.S. helps greatly. First, approach the customer in a friendly manner. This will get his attention, because it's so rarely that he is greeted in a friendly way by any salesperson on a retail floor. Second, be silent. If you remain silent, the customer must talk. This causes tension to rise. You know what you are doing. The customer does not. The rising tension will cause the customer to relieve his tension unconsciously and begin to talk. Third, look at the customer in a questioning manner. Form a question in your mind, your face will unconsciously take on the questioning expression. As a result, the customer will begin to tell you why he is in the store. Fourth, stare at the customer. This puts the ultimate positive touch on F.S.Q.S. It startles the customer and diminishes his chance to hide his real feelings.

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[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 52-71.

Now, the salesperson must engage in the most important step. He must listen to the customer actively. By active listening the salesperson means to guide the customer unconsciously while he is listening to him. Getting the customer to talk is relatively easy, but getting him to tell what must be known is a little more difficult. Therapists use this technique like a surgeon uses a scalpel. A therapist, by selecting and using the patient's own words and repeating them in the form of questions, can steer the patient into areas he wants to hear about. The proper selection of the right words is the key. This technique can be easily simplified in the salesperson-customer relationship. For example if a stereophonic equipment salesperson asks, "How are you listening to music now?" and the customer replies, "I have some components a friend gave me a long time ago." the salesperson has several choices. If the salesperson asks, "What components?", the customer will tell the details about his system. If the question asked is, "A friend?", the customer might explain that his friend is a musician or give other unimportant details about his friend. If the question asked is, "A long time ago?", the customer may tell that his equipment is old and does not sound good lately.

By engaging in active listening the customer tells the salesperson what he wants, why he wants it, and he turns on. By listening carefully and concentrating consciously, the salesperson quickly picks up the high points. By now, the customer "knows" for sure that the salesperson has a special interest in what he says and what he needs. Now, it is the customer's turn! He will listen with eagerness to the information supplied by the salesperson, and moreover he will be highly predisposed to evaluate that information positively. By active listening, the salesperson lets the customer lay out the entire presentation. He learns what the customer really wants, how much he will probably pay for the product, and why he will buy it. This method has definite advantages. By referring to the customer's own words, it is easy to relate how that exclusive feature gives him the ultimate satisfaction in achieving what he said he is looking for. Thus, the customer's participation leads him naturally to a product selection.

The purpose of this paper is to report on an experiment designed to test the effectiveness of the concept of active listening in a real-world selling situation.

METHOD

In November, 1977, a full-line department store chain with four stores located in Birmingham, Alabama, agreed to allow the experiment to be conducted in its television and stereophonic equipment departments. Two stores were selected to receive the experimental treatment and two stores were selected to serve as controls.

The departmental salespersons from the two experimental stores each attended a one-day training seminar on active listening and F.S.Q.S. techniques on November 29 and 30, 1977. The departmental salespersons from the two control stores received no such training. There were eight departmental salespersons assigned to the experimental stores and eight to the control stores.

Salespersons attending the training session were informed by management to attend the seminar, to use the techniques consistently for the month of December, and to report on the effectiveness of the techniques on January 3, 1978.

Comparative shoppers were utilized during December to confirm that the trained salespersons were using the techniques. Each salesperson was checked once a week for three weeks in December by different comparative shoppers each time. All checks confirmed that the departmental salespersons in the two experimental stores were indeed employing the techniques.

RESULTS

Effectiveness of the active listening approach was tested by comparing total-dollar departmental sales volumes for the month of December between the experimental stores and the control stores. Total-dollar departmental sales for the two experimental stores was $206,173 and total-dollar departmental sales for the control stores was $136,745. Thus, total-dollar departmental sales were 50.8% greater in the experimental stores than in the control stores.

Since, exogenous factors such as income level of the population served by each of the four stores was not controlled for in the experiment, total-dollar departmental sales for December, 1977, were compared to total-dollar departmental sales for December, 1976, on a store-by-store basis. In the experimental stores, total-dollar departmental sales were up 26.2% for the month of December, 1977, over the previous December. In the control stores, total-dollar departmental sales were up 12.8% for the month of December, 1977, over the previous December. Thus, sales were up considerably more in the experimental stores than the control stores compared to the same period of a year earlier.

In addition, average sale per ticket was $469 in the experimental stores as compared to $334 in the control stores. This indicates that the experimental stores sold more higher priced models than the control stores.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of the experiment indicate that the active listening approach is an effective selling tool, since sales in the experimental stores substantially exceeded thosein the control stores.

However, caution should be exercised in generalizing these results to other situations. The approach may not be effective for a broad range of products and/or selling situations. That is, the effectiveness of the approach may be limited to high-ticket products sold in department stores.

Further research is needed to test active listening's effectiveness in other selling situations and for other types of products. However, the approach does hold great promise as a personal selling aid.

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PART IV
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF THE GRAPEVINE IN ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Keith Davis, Arizona State University

ABSTRACT

The grapevine is the communication system of informal organizations. During the last fifty years much has been learned about it, and portions of what has been learned are presented in sixteen general statements. The grapevine is a significant part of organizational communication with regard to both quantity of information communicated and quality of information in the sense that it influences decision making, formal communication programs, employee attitudes, and organizational performance.

Since the grapevine's importance in organizations is clearly demonstrated, grapevine coverage belongs in (1) organizational communication courses, (b) management courses, and (c) management development courses presented in university extension programs or in private consulting.

INTRODUCTION

Since the famous Hawthorne studies at Western Electric Company approximately fifty years ago, research on the organizational grapevine has provided improved understanding of this interesting but often hidden communication system. Progress has been slow. There have been no great breakthroughs in grapevine study; however, there is a growing body of useful knowledge. It is appropriate to ask: What have we learned about the grapevine? What is known that will help managers and employees understand and relate successfully to the grapevine? The following paper presents some basic grapevine ideas in response to the foregoing questions.

The grapevine is broadly defined as the informal communication system of organizations. It arises from the social interests and social exchanges of people, rather than from official organizational requirements. The important point about the grapevine is that management did not create it and cannot control it. Even though it operates on company premises, it is not subject to managerial authority. However, management must live with it, so understanding is necessary. Following are a number of statements about the grapevine that find some support from research and study.[1] These are general statements, omitting many details and ideas of less significance. It is assumed that all of the statements are preceded by the general phrase, ceteris paribus, or "other relevant factors remaining unaltered."

SOME BASIC STATEMENTS ABOUT THE GRAPEVINE

1. The grapevine is a significant part of an organizational communication system with regard to both (a) quantity of information communicated and (b) quality of information, such as its importance and its effect on people and performance. Depending on how the grapevine is defined, it may include one-half or more of organizational communications in operating situations. Further, managers, employees, and researchers tend to agree that the informal communication system is an important influence in organizations.

2. The quality of management decisions depends on the quality of information inputs that management has, and one useful input is information from the grapevine. Several scholars have suggested that an organization could not operate effectively without a grapevine, even if it had the choice. The viewpoint is that the grapevine is a necessary input for people to understand what is going on in an organization in order to make effective decisions.

3. Successful communication with employees depends on (a) understanding their problems, (b) understanding their attitudes, and

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[1] These statements are developed from my own research and from grapevine literature during the last fifty years. Selected key sources are Jay T. Knippen, "Grapevine Communication: Management and Employees," Journal of Business Research, January, 1974, pp. 47-58; John W. Newstrom, Robert E. Monczka, and William E. Reif, "Perceptions of the Grapevine: Its Value and Influence," Journal of Business Communication, Vol. II, No. 3 (Spring, 1974), pp. 12-20; F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, Management and the Worker, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1939; Harold Sutton and Lyman W. Porter, "A Study of the Grapevine in a Governmental Organization," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 21, No. 2 (Summer, 1968), pp. 223-230; and Eugene Walton, "How Efficient Is the Grapevine?" Personnel, March-April, 1961, pp. 45-49. Some of my own research is reported in Keith Davis, Human Behavior at Work, 5th ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1977, especially Chapter 16; Keith Davis, "Grapevine Communication among Lower and Middle Managers," Personnel Journal, Vol. 48, No. 4 (April, 1969), pp. 269-272; and, Keith Davis, "Management Communication and the Grapevine," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 31, No. 5 (September-October, 1953), pp. 43-49.

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(c) determining gaps in employee information, and the grapevine is a valuable source of these kinds of inputs.

4. Because of Statements 1, 2, and 3, the quality of management decisions is significantly affected by management's success in listening to and interpreting the grapevine. Many managers would prefer to ignore the grapevine because it is hidden and complex, but Statement 4 suggests that managers who ignore the grapevine are not realizing their full decision-making potential. Whether they like it or not, they need to keep up to date about the grapevine and to listen, listen, listen.

5. Because of Statements 1, 2, and 3, the quality of management communication programs is significantly affected by management's capacity to understand and relate to the grapevine. If management tries to communicate with employees without first learning from both formal and informal sources, it will accomplish only partial results. In short, half-way communication gets half-way results.

6. The grapevine cannot be suppressed or directly controlled, although it may be influenced by the way management relates to it. The grapevine is an expression of the natural motivation of people to communicate informally when they work together. It is an expression of their freedom of speech. Management is not in total control of employees in an organization, and society would not want it to be, so employees will develop communication on their own initiative. Even the authorities in a prison cannot suppress informal communication.

7. The grapevine has both negative and positive influences in an organization. The negative effects usually are well known, such as undermining morale, misleading people with incorrect information, and spreading malicious rumors about other people. The positive effects, however, often are overlooked by managers. Many years ago the Western Electric research showed that the grapevine was instrumental in building morale, encouraging cooperation, and aiding productivity. Further research has shown how the grapevine provides important information for management, especially human information relating to employee needs and attitudes. It also helps interpret management's official communications into employee language.

8. The grapevine can provide useful inputs even when the information it carries is known to be incorrect. This statement appears to be a contradiction. If the information is incorrect, how can it be useful? However, when the grapevine is viewed as part of an organizational system, it is evident that incorrect employee input may be useful.

For example, incorrect grapevine information shows where there are gaps in employee knowledge about organizational events. The subject covered also suggests areas of interest and even anxiety about events; otherwise employees normally would not be communicating about them. The nature of the misinformation also may reflect employee attitudes toward certain events. For example, an untrue negative rumor about a supervisor may indicate that he is disliked by employees. Considering the total system, an appropriate admonition for management is: Listen to the grapevine even when it is incorrect. It is trying to tell you something, and it can tell you something.

9. In normal organizational situations, excluding situations such as strikes and disasters, the grapevine on the average carries more correct than incorrect units of information. Grapevine research has shown consistently that, counting each separate unit of information in a communication, usually well over seventy or eighty percent of these are correct. For example, in a grapevine story containing thirteen units of information, eleven of them may be correct. The problem is that the two incorrect units may be so important to the communication that they cause the whole context to be wrong. Thus the communication appears "wrong" to receivers. This is the main reason that the grapevine is often condemned as an unreliable source of information. In spite of its unreliability, employees report that they give the grapevine priority when they want to learn what is really happening in an organization.

10. The grapevine typically carries an incomplete story. Most grapevine communication is oral, and because of the limitations of human memory in an oral situation, most grapevine stories tend to have gaps in them in the sense that they do not tell the whole story. Considering Statements 9 and 10, it can be said that the grapevine carries the truth, but not the whole truth. This incompleteness further builds the grapevine's reputation as an unreliable source of information.

11. Compared with most formal communications, the grapevine tends to spread faster through an organization, so it can affect people very quickly. One reason is that it is mostly oral, rather than written. Another is that its patterns are multidirectional. It can move across chains of command and around key people, because it is not bound by the organizational hierarchy. It is free to move wherever people want it to go. Another reason is that each communicator tends to tell more than one other person, so it spreads in a geometric way. The grapevine's speed is further enhanced by the marvels of electronic communication. Because of the grapevine's fast pace, management needs to move quickly if it desires to counter an undesirable rumor.

12. Grapevine communications are caused. Activity for any single grapevine subject tends to vary with situational factors, rather than being a mere element of chance. It is true that there is some chance in grapevine activity, such as the chance meeting of two friends at a water cooler, but people tend to initiate informal communications only when they want to do so for some reason. One reason is that they think the information is news, rather than stale information. Another is that they have a strong interest in the subject because it concerns their jobs, their friends, or something else that is important to them. At other times they try to make a social transaction with another person to pay off an information debt or to encourage the other person to give them an information input. Sometimes the communication provides an expression of trust, friendship, and sharing with another person. Whatever the reason, the causal factor in grapevines means that management may have some opportunity to influence grapevine patterns by affecting the causes involved.

Not much is known about how grapevine causes can be influenced, but some guidelines are developing. For example, when grapevines are caused by anxiety and insecurity, management can reduce these conditions, thereby tending to reduce grapevine activity about them. Management is also beginning to realize that grapevine patterns of contact are encouraged when people work near each other or are required by procedures to be in regular contact with more distant persons. For example, when one executive assistant was placed on the floor with the executive offices, but another was located elsewhere, this fact placed the first assistant in contact with more top executives and elevated him to high status as a prime grapevine source. The move also generated many rumors about personalities and organizational relationships.

13. Men and women are approximately equally active on the grapevine. Popular impressions about one or the other sex being more active on the grapevine appear to be incorrect. Since there are many grapevine causes, as detailed earlier, at any particular time persons of one sex may be more active about a subject, but when the system is considered as a whole, no significant difference in activity appears.

It does appear, however, that persons in different roles in an organization may have more causal factors encouraging them to communicate. For example, it was reported in one study that secretaries to managers were more likely to be key grapevine communicators compared with other employees as a group. One reason was that many secretaries had a key formal communication role, so others sought contacts with them in order to secure important bits of information. Another was that their work required them to be in contact with a wide variety of people, even across chains of command, and informal communication tended to develop from these contacts.

14. Nonverbal communication is significant in interpreting verbal grapevine communication. The way that something is said often is as important as what is said. Frowns, gestures, and other nonverbal activities carry meaning, and when they are available, they help interpret any communication.

15. Informal leaders often serve as message centers for receiving, interpreting, and distributing grapevine information to others. They often use information as a type of currency for social transactions with others. They also may control information distribution for purposes of maintaining their power and prestige in the informal group. Further, it is easy for them to affect attitudes by what they report and how they report it. For example, with regard to a promotion list concerning eight people, they may emphasize the four who were promoted or the four who were rejected.

16. Typical grapevine activity usually is not a sign of organizational sickness or health; that is, grapevine activity is a normal response to group work. This statement requires some interpretation, however. A very active grapevine may indicate major employee information gaps,

insecurities, or anxieties. At the opposite end of the continuum, an inactive grapevine may indicate that employees have lost interest in their work and have psychologically withdrawn from the organization, even though they are physically there. In addition, the grapevine tone, whether positive or negative, does relate somewhat to attitudinal sickness or health.

In summary, there is useful information about the organizational grapevine, although much still remains to be learned. Its importance to organizations and management is clearly demonstrated; therefore, coverage of the grapevine belongs in (a) organizational communication courses, (b) management courses, and (c) management development courses that are taught in university extension programs or in private consulting.

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THE CHALLENGE OF TEACHING MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION TO EXECUTIVE MBA'S

George T. Vardaman, University of Denver

ABSTRACT

The author examines the teaching of an innovative "Managerial Communication" course to Executive MBA candidates in the Graduate School of Business and Public Management, University of Denver. He gives general and specific details concerning both the Executive MBA program and the Managerial Communication course under six headings: program, purposes, procedures, problems, pay offs, and peroration.

Conclusions: despite inevitable pedagogical and learner problems, the "Managerial Communication" course has successfully accomplished its two primary missions: (1) to produce Executive MBA graduates who are expert in their own written communications; and (2) to produce Executive MBA graduates who can expertly manage organizational communications.

PRESENTATION

The paper is organized under six P's: (1) Program; (2) Purposes; (3) Procedures; (4) Problems; (5) Pay offs; and (6) Peroration.

Program

Launched in 1973, D.U.'s Executive MBA program is unique in that it is a four-term weekend (Friday-Saturday) curriculum. All candidates must meet rigorous criteria: (1) have a minimum seven years' lapse since completion of undergraduate degree; (2) have an executive leadership position in an organization; (3) have solid evidence of potential advancement into higher executive responsibilities; and (4) have satisfactory GMAT and undergraduate academic ratings.

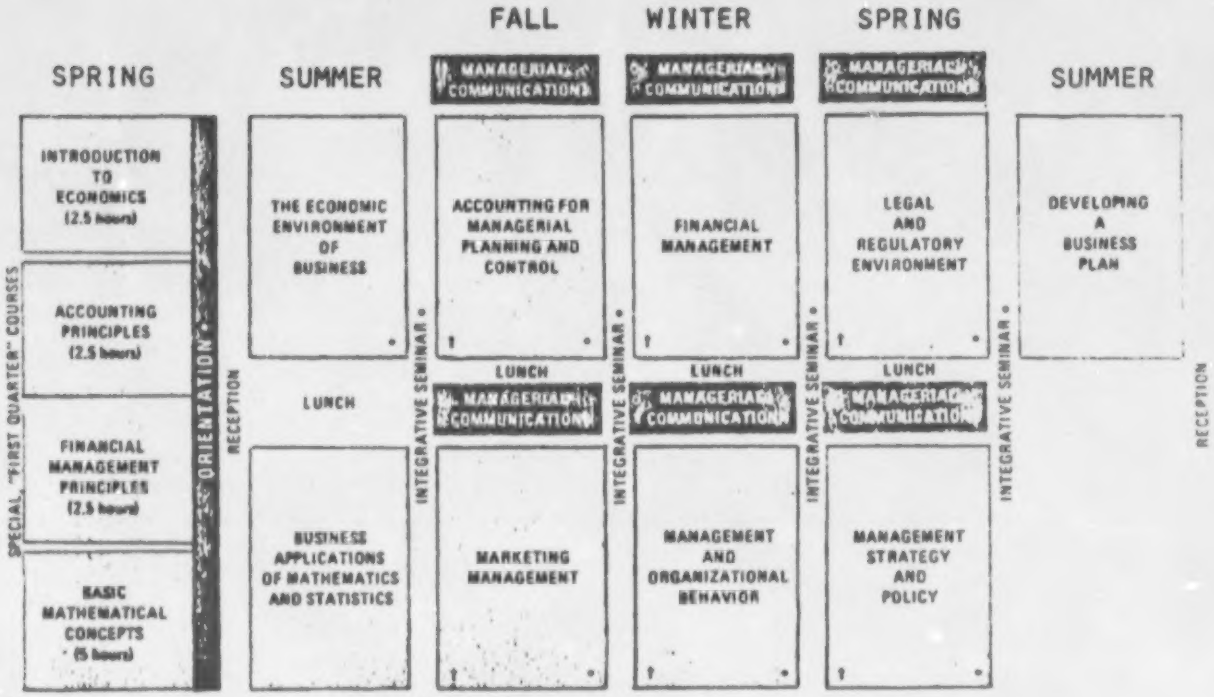
Extensive surveys and discussions with perceptive regional and national business and professional leaders produced consensus that managerial communication was a prime need for our planned program. Therefore "Managerial Communication" has been in the curriculum from the beginning. Course details are elaborated under "Procedures."

Purposes

Succinctly stated, "Managerial Communication" gives learners high-level knowledge and competence for both personal and organizational communication tasks. In other words, students become expert in (1) their own writing, and (2) their uses of communications as managerial tools.

Procedures

FIGURE 1


FALL
WINTER
SPRING
SPRING
SUMMER
MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION
MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION
MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION
SUMMER
INTRODUCTION TO ECONOMICS (2.5 hours)
ACCOUNTING PRINCIPLES (2.5 hours)
FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES (2.5 hours)
BASIC MATHEMATICAL CONCEPTS * (5 hours)
SPECIAL "FIRST QUARTER" COURSES
ORIENTATION •
RECEPTION
THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT OF BUSINESS *
LUNCH
BUSINESS APPLICATIONS OF MATHEMATICS AND STATISTICS
INTEGRATIVE SEMINAR •
ACCOUNTING FOR MANAGERIAL PLANNING AND CONTROL † *
LUNCH
MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION
MARKETING MANAGEMENT † *
INTEGRATIVE SEMINAR •
FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT † *
LUNCH
MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION
MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR † *
INTEGRATIVE SEMINAR •
LEGAL AND REGULATORY ENVIRONMENT † *
LUNCH
MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION
MANAGEMENT STRATEGY AND POLICY † *
INTEGRATIVE SEMINAR •
DEVELOPING A BUSINESS PLAN
RECEPTION

NOTE: Each course five quarter hours, unless otherwise designated.

* designates that the course will include an international component.

† designates that the course will include a managerial communication component.

• The Orientation Week and Integrative Seminars carry 3½ hours of credit. Tuition paid and grade established Spring Quarter.

EXECUTIVE MBA CURRICULUM STRUCTURE

Figure 1 depicts how Managerial Communication fits into our Executive MBA curriculum. As shown, the "course" cuts across three quarters' study. Why? Because we find that our students gain far more mature sensitivity to the importance of and ability to use writing as managers or professionals.

Importantly, "discipline" papers are evaluated for communication in all three quarters. For example, the marketing management professor grades the designated paper for content. Independently (using a second copy from each student) the Managerial Communication professor rates writing quality. Therefore, selected discipline projects get both a "content" and "communication" grade.

Results? At first many learners feel frustration (and some voice outright anger) at having to meet the two "different" objectives (i.e., content cognition and communication competence). However, after one or two cycles, most agree that content and writing, while differentiable, are inextricably intertwined, that written quality is directly correlated with subject knowledge. Once such awareness comes, most opposition to the two-part evaluation ends.

Significantly, our experience demonstrated that the typical classroom pattern is suboptimal for teaching writing to mature business and professional learners. For the first two years "Managerial Communication" was taught as were all other courses -- ten 4-hour sessions on Fridays or Saturdays. While results were generally good, we could see that many students were failing to transfer communication learnings to either other course writing tasks or to their own organizational communication tasks. Certainly some transfer occurred, but both discipline professors and company superiors voiced the need for even better results-oriented writing.

After much study (including a comprehensive survey of both our former students and their bosses), we changed to the current pattern. Essentially the course is now "tutorial," a radical departure from our initial approach. Students now follow this sequence:

1. In March (preceding the new program start) all incoming candidates are required to attend an afternoon Managerial Communication orientation. Course objectives, policies and procedures are explained; then beginning writing assignments are made.

2. A self-teaching text, Successful Writing,[1] is given to each student, together with practical suggestions for use. Text demonstration exercises and examples are used to maximize student understandings and interest. Incidentally, the new candidates' bosses and spouses are invited to attend the orientation to get a feel for what the student will experience. (Almost all candidates are accompanied by their superiors and spouses.) The communication instruction-demonstration produces lively participation -- but not only from candidates. Bosses and spouses wholeheartedly join in the discussions; moreover after the session, most come with the candidate to express their interest in and the importance of the managerial communication segment. Needless to say, such reinforcement is most helpful in getting the learner to perceive (initially and throughout the program) the importance of organizational written communication.

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[1] George T. and Patricia B. Vardaman, Successful Writing: A Short Course for Professionals. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1977.

3. The first "Communication Plan" is assigned (see Exhibit 1). While the format is self-evident, clear explanations of the what, why and how are given so that all candidates understand the rigorous expectations. Special comments are made to show how the text gives direct guidance in carrying out the communication research and its effective presentation.

4. The "Activities Schedule" (Exhibit 2) is then explained, together with grading procedures, schedules for quarterly face-to-face discussions, and other evaluation protocol.

5. As stated, all candidates must study and stand examinations -- oral and written -- on the self-learning text. Tests are given at the same time that the students' papers (i.e., communication plan and discipline projects) are discussed. As needed, special text sections' reviews are required, and retests are administered until concomitant high-level writing performance and communication principles' mastery are clearly demonstrated.

Problems

The discerning teacher has no doubt already anticipated most of the following obstacles to this written communication learning pattern:

1. It is costly in time and money. Such instruction requires a minimum one-half load of a senior professor. However, since tuition for our Executive MBA program is nearly twice that of our traditional MBA, the University of Denver can cover monetary costs.

2. It often produces initial student defensiveness and opposition. In spite of early enthusiasm (e.g., as generated in the orientation session), when the crunch of measuring up to high writing standards comes home, pessimism and outspoken opposition often surface, an outcome leading to the next problem.

3. It requires pedagogical patience and perseverance. While most learners will systematically proceed to work on writing improvement, a few will "fight the system." Invariably these are among the least capable writers. Fortunately we have what is required to make the requirements stick: the complete support of teaching faculty and College of Business administrators, especially the Dean and Associate Dean. Once the "system-beater" sees that he or she must follow the same procedures and meet the same standards as all other candidates, the problem is resolved.

4. It requires a professor who understands the what, when, why and how of organizational communication. Candidly, the typical English teacher does not meet this requirement. And while business administration background is not a prerequisite,

managerial communication teaching does require an instructor who knows something about other management disciplines and their relation to real-world organizational communication. Only when such a person is teaching it can our pattern make Managerial Communication integral and relevant to both business discipline professors and to students.

5. It requires individual instruction. The statement is not mere shibboleth. Mature, experienced business and professional people demand that the professor focus on their specific communication needs. Especially is this true with the beginning above-average or exceptional writer-learner. (Note: these are the ones who will gain the most from writing instruction as described here.) Indeed, the communication professor becomes a communication consultant for each student's important academic and on-the-job communications. For example, many candidates bring examples of their (or other members') actual organizational specimens for analysis and improvement. While showing real course payoff and producing real psychological rewards for both student and professor, no elaboration is needed as to the time and energy required from the latter.

One real help: the self-teaching text. Since almost all communication problems and opportunities are anticipated in it, Successful Writing can be used as a continuing reinforcing and reference resource.

Pay offs

Some have already been discussed explicitly or implicitly. Therefore only additional outcomes follow.

1. Significant academic written communication improvement occurs. Discipline professors are the first to discern and declare the better clarity, correctness, and cogence of reports, case analyses, and examination writings. Students also state the same. Most important, analyses of "before and after" student writing specimens clearly demonstrate upgrading.

2. Significant on-the-job communication improvement occurs. Often even more dramatic than the academic, the students real-world organization writings evidence genuine learning transfer. Frequently bosses or peer workers call or write concerning students' changes for the better. Learners themselves frequently remark about how much more clear or persuasive their own documents have become -- or how they are systematically working to see the new job writing products -- sometimes sent by bosses or peers -- in contrast to documents generated before the course. In most cases differences are remarkable; in some instances distinctions appear miraculous.

Peroration

As the basic tool for doing the executive's or professional's job, managerial communication is clearly as important as any business or professional discipline. Our College of Business Administration has put its preachments and practices together to assure communication-conscious and communication-competent Executive MBA learner products.

APPENDIX

Exhibit 1

Executive MBA Managerial Communication

Communication Plan: Basic Pattern

1. The organization: Macro-environment
    1.1 International/National setting
    1.2 Regional setting
    1.3 Industrial (competitive) setting

2. The organization: Micro-environment
    2.1 Product/service mission
    2.2 Basic structure
    2.3 Membership
    2.4 Production (output) technology
    2.5 Financial resources
    2.6 Marketing resources
    2.7 Supportive (staff) resources (e.g., O.R., engineering)

3. Organizational communication resources: Status (an inventory of what exists)
    3.1 Written documents (the nine basic types)
    3.2 Automated communications
    3.3 Video/graphic communications
    3.4 Specialized systems/networks (e.g., combinations of 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 for specific purposes. Examples: Management information, automated quality control, video display centers).

4. Organizational communication resources: Effectiveness
    4.1 Purposes: knowing and pursuing
    4.2 Receivers: knowing and reaching
    4.3 Impacts: knowing and attaining
    4.4 Designs: knowing and using
    4.5 Execution: knowing and carrying out
    4.6 Rating communication: priorities versus effectiveness

5. Organizational communication resources: Problems identification
    5.1 Identifying major costs problems
    5.2 Identifying major effectiveness problems
    5.3 Identifying the most important communications problems

6. Organizational communication resources: Plans for improvement
    6.1 Immediate: a one-year plan
    6.2 Long-range: a five-year plan
    6.3 Concluding remarks

Exhibit 2

Activities Schedule
Managerial Communication

Spring, 1978

1. Completion of all sections Successful Writing (the text is a programmed self-instructional guide).

2. Write-up of communication plan, using attached outline. (Due in Dr. Vardaman's office May 26.) The completion of the Successful Writing materials, in addition to the economics and statistics courses taken during the summer, give sufficient background for writing an effective communication plan.

Summer, 1978

1. June 15, 16: Individual oral examinations to ascertain knowledge and ability to apply concepts and principles in Successful Writing; and

2. Review of evaluated communications plan; suggestions for improved writing. Preview of discipline paper due last of autumn quarter.

Winter, 1979

1. A "Proposal for Organizational Communication Improvement" assignment due fifth week of quarter.

2. A discipline paper assignment (similar pattern to autumn quarter) due toward quarter end.

3. Both the communications proposal and the discipline paper will be evaluated and returned by the quarter's end.

Spring, 1979

1. Special writing assignments for those few who have not gained exemption. End of quarter: grades assessed for all students.

Summer, 1979

Official registration for Managerial Communications course. Official grades assigned.

A MACRO-MODEL OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

William C. Sharbrough, Louisiana State University

ABSTRACT

The centrality of communication in the functioning of organizations has led to the development of the field of "organizational communication." An integration of findings regarding organizational communication may eventually lead to a general theory of communication in organizations. This paper proposes a macro-model composed of four subsystems. The subsystems discussed are (1) the human subsystem; (2) the interpersonal subsystem; (3) the internal subsystem; and (4) the (external) environmental subsystem. The development of this model will hopefully lead to a greater understanding of organizational communication, as well as stir further research, especially in the interface areas among the subsystems discussed.

THE IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

The concept of communication has a central position in the study of organizations. Communication "...is vital to the functioning of organizations...[and] we could go so far as to say that organizations exist through communication."[1] More specifically, communication is the primary tool used by organizations to select, control and coordinate the activities of human and material resources within the organization itself, and the principle method organizations use in responding and adapting to the external environment in which they operate.[2]

The centrality of communication in the study of organizations is noted by Chester I. Barnard as set forth in his landmark text, The

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[1] Raymond V. Lesikar, Business Communication: Theory and Application, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Ill., 1976, p. 4.

[2] Ronald L. Smith and others, "Organizational Behavior: An Approach to Human Communication," in Approaches to Human Communication, Richard W. Budd and Brent D. Ruben, eds., Spartan Books, New York, 1972, pp. 269-70.

Functions of the Executive,[3] in 1938. The emphasis that Barnard placed on communication is evident in this statement:

> "...In an exhaustive theory of organization, communication would occupy a central place, because the structure, extensiveness and scope of organizations are almost entirely determined by communication techniques."[4]

This emphasis has been carried into most of the current literature that deals with human beings and their relationship to and within organizations.

"Organizational Communication" is enveloped by many disciplines, some of which include organizational theory and behavior, psychology, sociology, social pSychology, information theory, etc. Research in the field is being conducted by scholars from the many disciplines that are concerned with the way people communicate within organizations.

This wide interest in communication serves, however, as a two-edged sword. On one hand, the volume of research provides a wide theoretical base from which to view communication. On the other hand, the varying interests make a clear-cut definition of organizational communication difficult to determine. The lack of integration of theoretical and research findings from the different disciplines concerned with communication has made the boundaries of the field even more vague. If the field of organizational communication is to continue to advance, an integration of the various research findings and theories would be helpful. This integration may lead to a general theory of organizational communication.

A MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION IS NEEDED

A general theory of organizational communication is far from being a reality at this infant stage of the evolution of the field, but rapidly expanding research has the possibility of bringing this goal into focus. One of the first steps toward a general theory is to develop an acceptable model of communication in organizations. This model, as one of its requirements should include all the pertinent communication subsystems that help make up what can be called the "communication system"[5] of the organization.

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[3] Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1938.

[4] Ibid., p. 91.

[5] Brent D. Ruben, "General System Theory: An Approach to Human Communication," in Approaches to Human Communication, Richard W. Budd and Brent D. Ruben, eds., Spartan Books, New York, 1972, p. 135.

A. Many Models have been developed

There are many different models that can be used to describe communication. One survey, published in 1962 gives descriptions of fifteen different models of communication.[6] Most models, however, are designed to describe the process of communication between individuals without regard to organizational context.

At least two models that apply in the context of organizational communication have been developed. The first of these was first utilized to describe electronic communication and has been applied to organizational communication. The second model was developed specifically to apply within the organizational context.

The Shannon-Weaver model of the communication process, is the "most widely used" model of the communication process.[7] This model is essentially mathematical and is the basis for the field of information theory. As engineers for Bell Telephone, Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver developed their model to conceptualize electronic communication, rather than human communication.

Shannon and Weaver conceived the process of communication in mechanistic terms and thus developed a mechanistic communication system. The model consists of basically five components:

> "...an information source, a transmitter, a channel, a receiver, and a destination. In discussing these [they] quietly introduced four additional components of the system: a message, the transmitted signal, the received signal, and noise source."[8]

This model has become a widely accepted version of how the different phases of the communication process are related in organizations. Writers will often make slight variations in the terminology and/or elaborate on certain phases; but to a large degree, the model is generally accepted. A recent variation of this model has been proposed as an "Administrative model of the communication process" by Theodore T. Herbert.[9]

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[6] R. Smith, "General Models of Communication," Communication Research Center, Purdue Univ., (Dittoed), 1962.

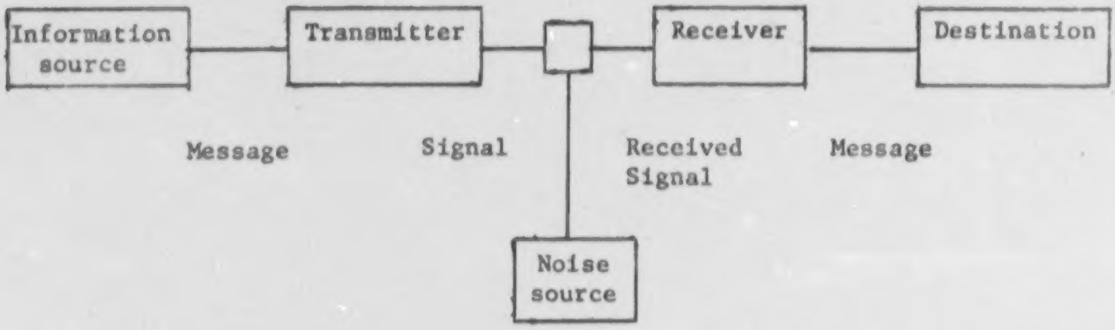
[7] James L. Gibson and others, Organizations: Structure, Processes, Behavior, Business Publications, Inc., Dallas, Tex., 1973, p. 165.

[8] Donald K. Darnell, "Information Theory: An Approach to Human Communication," in Approaches to Human Communication, Richard W. Budd and Brent D. Ruben, eds., Spartan Books, New York, 1972, pp. 156-7.

[9] Theodore T. Herbert. "Toward an Administrative Model of the Communication Process," Journal of Business Communication, Vol. 14, no. 4, (Summer, 1977) pp. 25-36.

Figure 1

Shannon-Weaver Model of Organizational Communication



Source: Shannon and Weaver, The Mathematical Theory of Communication, Univeristy of Illinois Press, Urbana, Ill., 1949, pp. 5 and 98.

The Shannon-Weaver model of communication and most of its variations as applied to organizational communication, however, have several shortcomings. A micro-orientation is evident in the explanation of the various stages. That is, the model seems to focus on the process by which information is transferred from any given point to any other point within an organization, without considering the interrelationships of the different parts of the organization.

A second criticism is that the model is too mechanistic. Although it does an acceptable job of explaining communication, the factors that create the network of control and communication within organizations are only discussed superficially. The factors of perception, status, power, etc. are not given emphasis in the model.

A final criticism of this model is that it takes basically a closed-system approach to communication in organizations, ignoring communication with the organization's external environment. As the external environment changes at an increasing rate, to continue to be viable organizations must change to adapt to new environmental forces.[10]

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[10] Shirley Terreberry, "The Evolution of Organizational Environments," in Contingency Views on Organizations and Management, Fremont E. Kast and James E. Rosenzweig, eds., Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, 1973, p. 89.

Typical forces from the external environment include customers, suppliers, government, consumer groups, environmental action groups, and various other publics that may threaten the continued viability of an organization. Very few people would argue that the environment is not becoming increasingly complex and advancing at an alarming rate. It seems evident that communication with the external environment should be included in any model used to describe organizational communication.

One communication model has been developed to directly address the organizational communication system. This model, as developed by Lee Thayer was first published in 1967.[11]

In the development of Thayer's model, three explicitly stated assumptions are made. The first is that "...communication always occurs in an organized context..." The second is that "...the essential and preeminent organismic, interpersonal, and organizational function is communication:" that is, the input, processing and output of "information" in a programatic manner. Thayer's third assumption is that an organization, or any behavior system will attempt to limit its openness to its environment and to stabilize itself in the form which requires a minimum rate of change; thus assuming that an organization will achieve a sort of homeostasis by limiting its contact with its external environment.[12]

Thayer's model divides the organizational communication system into three subsystems: the intrapersonal, the interpersonal, and the organizational.[13] The individual is viewed as a complex, dynamic, open purposive information-decision system in Thayer's Intrapersonal Subsystem. Individual behavior is seen as a function of perception; which is a function of an individual's psychological system; which, in turn, is viewed as a function of the sociocultural system.[14] Thus, in the intrapersonal subsystem, all communication comes from within the individual. It is implied that because this process is all internal, errors in this subsystem are almost impossible to correct.[15]

Within the Interpersonal subsystem, in order to communicate with others, individuals follow certain rules for communicative behavior. These rules are ingrained from an individual's first efforts to communicate.[16] The essential elements in any interaction between individuals are the areas of overlap in experience and knowledge of the participants. Also, any communication encounter provides experience and context for the occurrence of future encounters.

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[11] Lee Thayer, "Communication and Organization Theory," in Human Communication Theory: Original Essays, F.E.X. Dance, editor, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1967, pp. 70-115.

[12] Ibid., p. 84-6.

[13] Ibid., p. 86-7.

[14] Ibid., p. 88.

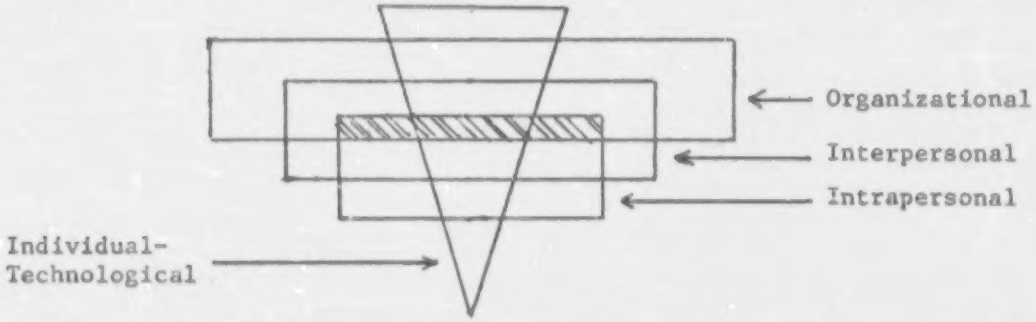
[15] Arnold Schneider and others, Organizational Communication, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1975, p. 37.

The Organizational subsystem according to Thayer, is used only for devised human organizations and the sometimes unplanned suborganizations that occur within them. Human organizations are also viewed as "...a complex, open, information-decision system," whose essential functions are those of its communication networks and the processing or decision points within the organization.[17]

The interrelationships among the intrapersonal, interpersonal and organizational communication levels are recognized by Thayer. These interrelationships have been graphically portrayed in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Levels of Organizational Communication Model



Source: Thayer, "Communication and Organization Theory," in Human Communication Theory: Original Essays, p. 87.

Although it is possible to discuss communication in any of these subsystems, the most difficult problems occur in the crosshatched central zone where the three subsystems overlap. Viewing the triangular figure as in individual member of the organization allows the reader to visualize the interrelationships of individuals and organizational communication among all the subsystems. It can be seen that all the subsystems affect a single individual just as any individual affects all of the subsystems.

Thayer's model of organizational communication goes far toward describing the components of communication in organizations. However,

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[16] *Loc. cit.*

[17] Thayer, *Op. cit.*, pp. 91-2.

this model can be criticized in several areas. By making several changes and additions, a more effective and descriptive model of organizational communication could be achieved.

Within the intrapersonal subsystem, Thayer treats man as an information processor only. Thus, he takes a mechanistic viewpoint of man as a communicator just as in the Shannon-Weaver model. Many of the factors peculiar to organizations that may affect the intrapersonal subsystem are ignored or skimmed over. Thayer's assumption that "...correction of errors [in this subsystem] is nearly impossible,"[18] can also be questioned. The study of General Semantics, and the utilization of its techniques for improving communication have been cited as helpful in overcoming communication problems on the intrapersonal level.[19]

Few criticisms can be leveled at Thayer's explanation of the interpersonal subsystem. The major drawback to his approach is that there is much more detail that can be added. Thayer's concept of relevant psychological subsystems of the participants in interpersonal communication can be expanded to take account of the effect of both the intrapersonal and organizational subsystems on interpersonal communication.

The organizational subsystem can be criticized in two areas. The first and most obvious criticism is that Thayer disregards the traditional vertical and horizontal directions of flow of communication to view organizational communication as three basic information systems: the operational, regulatory and maintenance and development systems.[20] These systems are no doubt valid, and most communication pertaining to the functioning of organizations can probably be grouped into one of these three categories. However, flows of information within and among these systems can generally be grouped into vertical and/or horizontal flows. These concepts are valuable in understanding the workings of the total system of communication in organizations[21] and should not be lightly cast aside.

A second criticism that can be directed toward Thayer's explanation of the organizational subsystem is that informal organizations are considered only briefly in his discussion. The importance and role of the informal to the formal organization deserves greater attention.

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[18] Ibid., p. 37.

[19] Raymond V. Lesikar, "A General Semantics Approach to Communication Barriers in Organization" in Current Concepts in Management, O. Jeff Harris, editor, Division of Research, College of Business Administration, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, 1972, p. 48.

[20] Thayer, Op. cit., p. 94-95.

[21] Richard L. Simpson, "Vertical and Horizontal Communication in Organizations" in Readings in Interpersonal and Organizational Communication, Richard C. Huseman and others, eds., Holbrook Press, Inc., Boston, 1969, pp. 112-13.

A final criticism of Thayer's model is directed toward the (external) environment and its relationship to the organization. The area of the communication with the environment is becoming more important because of increasing turbulance in the environments that are faced by organizations.[22] In a culture where it seems to be increasingly difficult for an organization to attempt to close itself off from its environment, communication with the environment should be given greater emphasis in a model of organizational communication.

A MACRO-MODEL SHOULD BE BUILT ON THESE MODELS

The models reviewed here have been valuable in increasing the knowledge of organizational communication. Their bad points should be dropped, and the good points should be retained and extended to gain greater insight into organizational communication. A more comprehensive model will hopefully add to the efforts to develop a theory of organizational communication.

As in Thayer's model, organizational communication can be divided into subsystems for detailed analysis. At the same time, by remembering that any organization is only a part of a larger system or environment, a second level of analysis is possible. These two different but related levels of analysis focus on: (1) internal relationships; and (2) external relationships between an organization and its external environment.

The internal system of organizational communication can be segmented into three relevant subsystems. The external communication subsystem should be considered at the same time. Thus, there are four relevant subsystems of organizational communication: (1) the human subsystem; (2) the interpersonal subsystem; (3) the internal subsystem; and (4) the external subsystem.

Further discussion will attempt to develop each of these subsystems, and to focus on the interrelationships between them. This approach should yield an integrated view of the total system of organizational communication while giving an in-depth analysis of the operation of each subsystem.

A. The Human Subsystem

The human subsystem of communication is roughly analogous to Thayer's intrapersonal level of communication, but takes a different view of human communication. Although this subsystem has been viewed as a "process" by several authors,[23,24] a systems view aids in relating to the organizational communication system and the factors that act as inputs. A proposed diagram of the Human subsystem appears in Figure 3.

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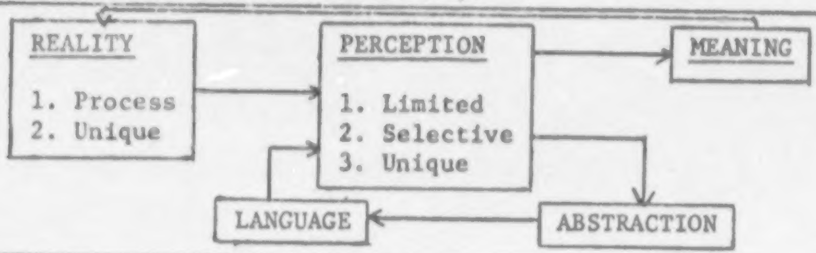
[22] Terreberry, Op. cit., p. 84.

[23] Lesikar, Business Communication:..., Op. cit., p. 15.

[24] Wendell Johnson, "The Fateful Process of Mr. A Talking to Mr. B," Harvard Business Review, vol. 31, (January-February, 1953), pp. 29-56.

Figure 3

Human Subsystem



Source: Primary

To explain the human subsystem as a whole it is first noted that meaning is given to the perception of reality by the process of abstracting which leads to language; which is given meaning based on previous perceptions. Going one step further, it can be seen that meaning, as it is perceived will affect further perceptions of reality. In human organizations, the human subsystem is the foundation for the system of organizational communication. In basic functional form, the human subsystem can be expressed as:

Human Subsystem (H) = f (R, P, A, L, M...)

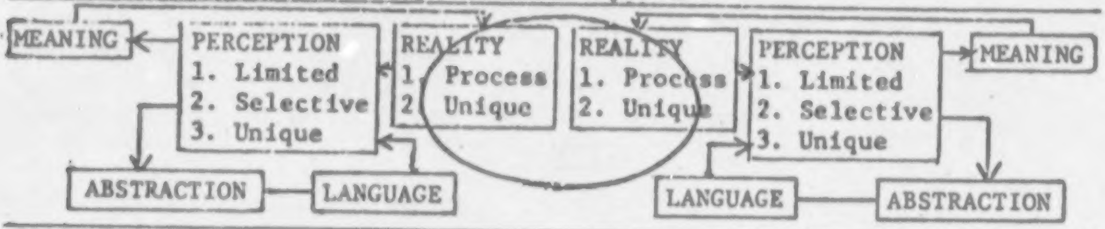
Where R represents an individual's concept of reality; P represents the perceptual process; A represents abstraction process; L represents language and its properties and M represents meaning, which is a function of all of the variables. Other variables could be considered. The ones listed here are not mutually exclusive, but are assumed to be the most important variables.

B. The Interpersonal Subsystem

The basis of the Interpersonal subsystem is obviously the human subsystem. In its simplest form, the interpersonal subsystem can be visualized as one human subsystem interacting with another. Combining two or more individual human subsystems allows construction of the interpersonal subsystem of organizational communication. The interpersonal subsystem is shown in Figure 4. One important factor that affects the interpersonal subsystem is that individuals can communicate only in those areas where their experiences and perceptions overlap and are in agreement, as indicated by the circular area in Figure 4. Also, it should be noted that any interaction between individuals will have an affect on further interactions between them because each successive interaction adds additional information or experience to their filters for future references in similar communication situations.

Figure 4

Interpersonal Subsystem



Source: Primary

In analyzing the interpersonal subsystem it should be remembered that the factors of reality, perception, abstraction, etc. have an even greater effect on the interpersonal subsystem because of the additional individuals that are necessary for the existance of the interpersonal subsystem of the organizational communication system. The concept of the Interpersonal subsystem expressed in an oversimplified functional form is:

$$\text{Interpersonal Subsystem (I)} = f[(H_1+H_2+\ldots+H_n)^{-R_o} + I_a(H_1+H_2+\ldots H_n)]$$

Where $H_{1\ldots n}$ represents individual subsystems. The negative exponent R_o represents only the overlap in the perceptions of reality of the individual subsystem. I_a represents the interactions among individuals that affects further communication. Again, it should be noted that this is an oversimplification of the subsystem and other important variables may affect the interpersonal subsystem.

C. The Internal Subsystem

The internal subsystem of organizational communication deals with communication within the system boundaries of the organization that have an effect on the organization as a whole. This includes communication that is necessary for the functioning of the organization as well as incidental communication (grapevine) related to the organization.

Many of the scholars who have written on communication in organizations have tended to call them the "...formal and informal communication channels. Basically, formal channels are official and informal channels are unofficial,"[25] A more comprehensive view of these divisions focuses on the purpose of the communication rather than on the channels of flow. This view divides these two types of communication as "internal operational" and "personal communication."[26]

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[25] Smith and others, Op. cit., pp. 271-2.

[26] Lesikar, Op. cit., p. 9.

Internal operational communication consists of "... the structured communication within the organization directly related to achieving the organization's work goals."[27] "Structured" refers to formal communication that is built into the organization's operations used to achieve its primary reason for existence. The media utilized include written and oral as well as other media.

Explaining organizational communication from an "information system" approach leads to a mechanical, heuristic approach to the transfer of information rather than the flow of communication from one individual to another within the organization. Human beings are not heuristic in nature, which creates problems for this approach. A "communication system" approach where the significances, purposes, desires, etc. of the individuals involved in the transfer of information are defined as crucial aspects of the system[28] is a more realistic way of viewing communication in organizations. Role perceptions, role behavior and role expectations of superiors, subordinates and peers within an organization have an effect on the internal operational communication of an organization. Because of this effect, an analysis of downward, upward and horizontal communication is essential to understanding the internal subsystem of organizational communication.

The traditional flow of communication in organizations has been downward from top management. Orders are given, instructions are stated, policies are established, and plans are communicated from the top downward in organizations. The downward flow of communication from superior to subordinate has five general goals:

"1. To give specific task directives about job instructions.
2. To give information about organizational procedures and practices.
3. To provide information about the rationale of the job.
4. To tell subordinates about their performance.
5. To provide ideological-type information to facilitate the indoctrination of goals."[29]

The upward flow of communication is also essential to the effective functioning of organizational communication. Two authorities state this well:

> "...in organizations, communication from lower to higher members in the hierarchy is vital. The extent to which accurate information is passed during superior-subordinate

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[27] Loc. cit.

[28] Ruben, Op. Cit., p. 135.

[29] Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1966, p. 239.

> interactions has implications not only for the attitudes of the sender and receiver, but also, for organizational decision-making, performance, etc."[30]

The traditional focus on communication in organizations has been downward. In practice, except for feedback controls of progress reports and production information, downward communication has dominated the upward flow of communication. Upward communication reveals acceptance of orders, plans, etc., by subordinates, aids in cooperative efforts, sometimes produces valuable ideas, etc.[31] Upward communication provides the internal system with a control loop that not only feeds back job-related information but also other suggestions, information, etc., that are necessary for the organization to function effectively. The upward flow of communication serves as a compliment to the necessary downward communication. However, there is a third direction of flow that is as important as either the upward or downward flow of operational communication.

Most writings on formal organization concerned with communication have stressed communication up and down the lines of authority.[32] As instructions and directives move down the hierarchy, information is sent back up. If two individuals on the same level need to communicate, they are supposed to do so indirectly. To follow the formal hierarchy upward and downward is much too cumbersome and slow to be effective in many organizational situations. Horizontal communication is a tool utilized to speed up this process and to aid in coordination. The necessity of horizontal communication flow becomes increasingly important as organizations become larger, more complex, and more subject to rapid change and have increased need for coordination of efforts within the organization. Studies of horizontal communication flow in organizations have not been in agreement on the amount of horizontal flow of communication that exists in organizations,[33] but they all seem to agree on its importance as a component of internal operational communication.

As stated previously, the organizational role system has an effect on internal operational communication. The effects of the Human and Interpersonal subsystems on the internal subsystem are manifested through the organizational role system and the interrelationship of individual roles within the organization. These organizational roles have been broadly defined as the common expectations of a position.

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[30] Karlene H. Roberts and Charles A. O'Reilly III, "Failure in Upward Communication in Organizations: Three Possible Culprits," Academy of Management Journal, vol. 17, (June, 1964), p. 205.

[31] Earl Planty and William Machaver, "Upward Communications: Project in Executive Development," in Business and Industrial Communication, W. Charles Redding and George A. Sanborn, eds., Harper and Row, New York, 1964, p. 351.

[32] Richard L. Simpson, Op. cit., p. 113.

[33] Fred Luthans, Organizational Behavior, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1973, p. 250-1.

There are four components of an individual's role: 1) role expectations; 2) sent roles; 3) perceived roles; and 4) role behavior. Organizational factors, personality factors, individual (or human factors), and interpersonal factors also affect roles and must be considered.[34] The role system shows a flow of communication between organizational members and it is through the role system that such factors as power, status, personalities, etc., are communicated and affect the system of organizational communication.

The organizational role system also affects personal communication within the internal subsystem. Personal communication refers to "...all that incidental exchange of information and feeling which human beings engage in whenever they come together."[35] Personal communication has also been called the "grapevine" and is "...one of our oldest systems of communication."[36] The grapevine is often rapid and accurate. However, it is as fickle, dynamic, and varied as people are,[37] and can be characterized by its speed of transmission, degree of selectivity, locale of operation, and relation to formal (internal operational) communication.[38] Because of these characteristics, the relation of personal communication to the internal subsystem is obvious. It will always be a part of the subsystem and will sometimes have a positive and sometimes negative effect. Formal organization roles will affect informal roles and vice versa, causing a role relationship between internal operational and personal communication.

A final component of the Internal Subsystem is the organizational "climate," or atmosphere within which members work. The climate, to a large extent is set by top management, and will affect the amount of trust between members of the organization and their communication with each other.[39] The basis for the organizational climate is perception and meaning on the human subsystem level. Organizational Climate begins to appear in the relations between individuals in the interpersonal system, and is magnified to a place of importance when considering the internal subsystem of organizational communication.

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[34] Katz and Kahn, *Op. cit.*, p. 1867.

[35] Lesikar, *Op. cit.*, p. 11.

[36] Alexander R. Heron, *Sharing Information With Employees*, Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California, 1942, p. 163.

[37] Keith Davis, *Human Relations at Work: The Dynamics of Organizational Behavior*, 4th edition, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1972, p. 61.

[38] Keith Davis, "Management Communication and the Grapevine," in *Business and Industrial Communication*, W. Charles Redding and George A. Sanborn, eds., Harper and Row, New York, 1964, pp. 103-5.

[39] Harold Steiglitz, "Barriers to Communication," in *Business and Industrial Communication*, W. Charles Redding and George A. Sanborn, eds., Harper and Row, New York, 1964, pp. 152-56.

The internal subsystem, then, has two major components, internal operational and personal communication. The organizational role system and organizational climate provide the interface between these two components, as well as aiding in the interfaces among the human, interpersonal and internal subsystems. The exact relationships among the variables of the internal subsystem are difficult to determine. Certainly, it can be said that the human and interpersonal subsystems act as important inputs into the Internal subsystem. These inputs cause the Internal subsystem to be extremely complex. Any attempt to model the Internal subsystem is necessarily greatly oversimplified. The basic relationships are stated below:

$$\text{Internal Subsystem } (I_n) = [(F, G, C, \ldots)^R \ (H+I)^R]$$

Where formal communication (vertical and horizontal) is represented by F; G represents the informal or grapevine component of the internal subsystem; R represents the role system; organization climate is represented by C; and H and I represent the Human and Interpersonal subsystems respectively. By using R as an exponential variable, its affect on all the other variables can be approximated. Other situational factors such as task structures, communication medias, time frames, etc. could also be included, but would seem to only increase complexity in a model that is already extremely complex.

D. Environmental Subsystem

The final component of the organizational communication system is the Environmental subsystem. The rapid advance of technology, increasing governmental influence, decreasing public confidence in business, etc. have caused an awareness of the need for communication with forces that are external to the organization. Traditional marketing communication models have considered communication with the customer controlled by the organization. However, this limited view of communication with the environment should be expanded to include other external forces or variables. Both direct and indirect communication between the organization and government agencies, the immediate community, the general public, suppliers, etc. should be considered as variables in the external subsystem. To continue to remain viable the organization should not only respond to the demands of its environment, but also try to influence its environment. This can only be accomplished through communication with the environmental subsystem. The inclusion of an environmental subsystem seems relatively new to models of organizational communication. However, the increasing importance of the environment seems to warrant its inclusion.

The elemental base of the environmental subsystem is the individual, just as within the organization itself. Every member of an organization interfaces directly with individuals external to the organization. At the same time, a member also plays a role in the external subsystem through his purchasing behavior, voting behavior, influence with other members of the environment, etc. Thus individuals play roles in both the environmental and organizational systems and to a large extent these roles overlap, making it difficult to separate organizations from their environments. The (external) environmental subsystem can be expressed in functional form, and is stated below in a very elementary way.

$$\text{Environmental Subsystem (E)} = f(G_o, P, C_o, G_u, \ldots)^{H_n}$$

Where G_o represents governmental influences; P represents the general public; C_o, the immediate community; C_u, an organization's customers; etc. The effect of the multiple roles of individuals within the environment is illustrated by using the human subsystem in exponential form.

THE MACRO MODEL

By treating organizational communication as an open system and focusing on the interrelations between the component systems four relevant subsystems emerge. They are: the human, interpersonal, internal, and external subsystems. Each subsystem is built on other subsystems, with the basic element of each being the individual human being.

The Human subsystem is based on perceptions or reality and it is these perceptions that are communicated in the interpersonal subsystem. The interactions between individuals make up further perceptions of reality. These interactions form the internal subsystem, which can be divided into communication directly related to the organizational purpose (internal operational communication), and incidental, sometimes organization-related communication (personal or grapevine communication). Communication with the external environment also has an effect on the operation and continued viability of the organization, and for this reason should be called "external operational communication."[40] In functional form, the system as a whole can be stated:

$$\text{Organizational Communication } (O_c) = f(H, I, I_n, E, \ldots)$$

Other forces and subsystems may also act as inputs into the organizational communication system, but the variables considered are the most widely recognized as being important to organizational communication.

A simple graphic illustration of this model is shown in Figure 5. It utilizes the basic structure of an atom to illustrate the various subsystems of organizational communication, with the human subsystem as the nucleus. The first orbit of electrons represents the interpersonal subsystem, with the electrons representing the individuals that make up the system. The second orbit around the nucleus is representative of the internal subsystem, where the stationary electrons represent internal operational and personal communication and the moving electrons represent the organization climate, the organizational role system, and the fact that this subsystem is made up of individuals. The third orbit represents the external environment, where the stationary electrons represent the various publics that an organization serves, while the unstable (movable) electrons represent the dual roles played by individuals.

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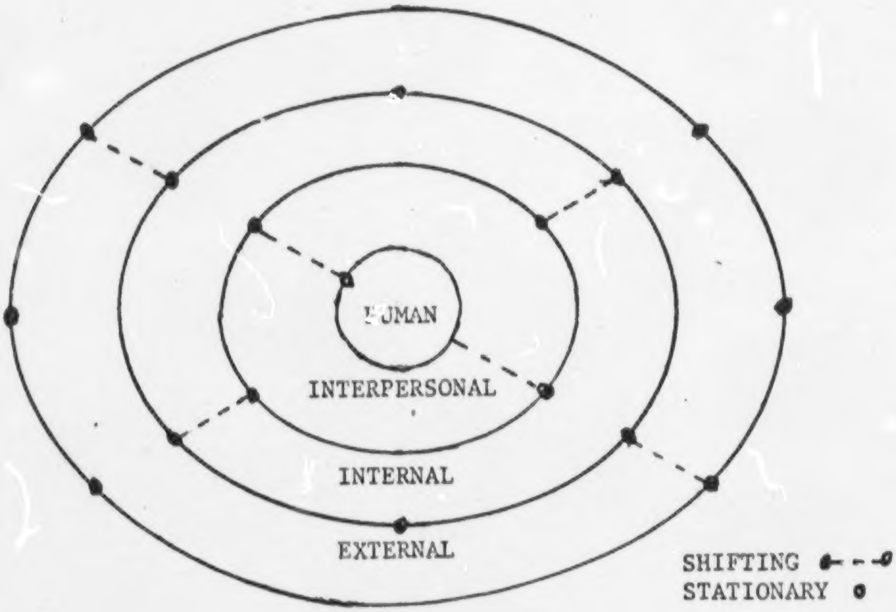
[40] Lesikar, Op. cit., pp. 11-12.

Figure 5

A MACRO-MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION



Source: Primary

This model has several advantages. The first is that it shows the components of organizational communication and their interrelationship. A second advantage is that it can be easily expanded with the addition of new findings by adding more variables to its subsystem equations or adding more subsystems. Graphically it can be expanded by adding more electrons to its orbits or adding more orbits. A third advantage is that different organizations (or sub-organizations) can be linked through interrelating subsystems to theoretically show entire industries, market structures and possibly cultures in complex simultaneous equations, or graphically in molecular fashion, just as in the molecular structure of chemical compounds.

Hopefully, the development of this model will add to the body of knowledge concerning organizational communication. There is much research left to be done before there can be a theory of organizational communication. The emphasis of future research in the area of organizational communication should be placed on the interfaces of the various subsystems and the system of organizational communication. The greatest advances in organizational communication have been made in these areas, and only further research will prove or disprove the validity of the model suggested in this paper or determine more exact relationships among the variables.

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SELECTED COMMUNICATION PROBLEMS INVOLVING SUPERIOR/SUBORDINATE ROLES

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses superior/subordinate problems, presents certain superior behavior patterns, and describes training techniques to develop the desired superior behavior. The training and development techniques described have been utilized in the university and business environment. The result is a supervisor that is more aware of the benefits of communication openness.

INTRODUCTION

My objective is to describe certain problems or barriers to communication within the superior/subordinate relationship, propose a particular solution, and finally to describe briefly a series of training techniques that you might find useful in your classroom or consulting activities.

The study of communication through the dyadic pairing of superior/subordinate is frequently observed in the literature. The study of communication between superior and subordinate remains an important area of research. The possibilities of training and development resulting from research findings continues to encourage researchers to investigate communication from the perspective of the superior and subordinate. After conducting extensive research concerning the information flows between superior and subordinate over the past two years, I had initially intended this paper to focus on certain research findings. Yet, as I observe more and more communication problems, I decided this paper might better serve our meeting by describing not only problems, but also certain training techniques that I believe are helpful.

PROBLEMS

Many writers and business theorists have developed ideas concerning communication's role in the organization. Researchers have long viewed communication as "essential," "instrumental," and/or "inseparable" from the organization. However, there are limitations present in communication, which is only one of several tools used by a manager in performing the assigned functions. Keith Davis describes the place of communication in the following:

> It (communication) is merely the process by which a manager takes action, rather than being the substance of good management. The best communication will not compensate for poor plans. . . All managers, therefore, need to set communication in proper perspectives as an important and essential process which does not substitute for good management ideas but does enable them to carry out whatever good ideas they can generate.[1]

Many writers and researchers have identified various problems or barriers to the process that Dr. Davis refers. These barriers prevent or lessen the effectiveness of the managers in their effort to carry out their good ideas. To mention only a few areas, the problems of bias, accuracy, distortion, filtering, listening, and defensiveness could be considered. As a way of summarizing many problems, how many times have we heard the superiors say of their subordinates, "they never have ideas, or say what they really think." The subordinate in turn will be heard to say of the superior, "they never listen to me, they only hear what they want to." The problems underlying such statements are basic to the communication climate-environment.

OPENNESS IN COMMUNICATION

The solution to problems/barriers in the communication climate-environment are not easy to specify and even more difficult to implement. One of the essential elements for a good communication climate is communication "openness." W. C. Redding identifies communicating openness as the foremost element in the ideal climate for management.[2]

Research conducted into the distortion of upward information flows reported the importance of superior's openness in communication. In those superior/subordinate relationships reporting the lowest levels of distortion, the communication activity of superior openness in communication was very significant.[3] The subordinate that perceived openness in the superior's communication activity reported significantly less distortion.

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[1] Keith Davis, Human Relations at Work (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 318.

[2] W. C. Redding, Communication Within the Organization: An Interpretive Review of Theory and Research (New York: Industrial Communication Council, 1972), pp. 332-334.

[3] J. Lynn Johnson and Dale A. Level, "Distortion of Upward Information Flows and Superior Communication Activity," Proceedings of the Southwest ABCA, Spring, 1977, pp. 73-84.

Indeed, openness in the communication is found throughout the literature as a recommended solution for superior/subordinate communication problems.[4] Redding sees openness as a significant trait, for his organization communicator.[5] As these last few references suggest, many of the studies place great importance upon the superior with respect to the openness factor. The superior's role is critical to the openness in the communication climate.

Rensis Likert found foremen of high productivity sections were more open to their communication behavior with the subordinate.[6] Likert suggested that openness in communication prevents the waste of energy upon nonproductive activity and allows maximization of productive group activity. Likert continues to make openness a significant variable in his systems or stages of organizational development. N. A. Rosen's study found that the "ease of communication" with the superior is an important determinant of successful work groups.[7] To summarize, we can find several research studies and findings suggesting that openness in communication is a most desirable trait or characteristic. However, the number of articles are significantly reduced when we move from problem identification to training and development techniques.

The challenge to us as educators and consultants is to develop techniques and tools which will identify and develop an openness attitude or concern in our student in the classroom or supervisors we are exposed to through training programs.

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT TECHNIQUES

It appears that one popular avenue for openness training is through sensitivity, laboratory training techniques. Organizations and educators reporting good results through many of these techniques are often reported. In searching for techniques, however, one limitation often recognized is the time constaints of the classroom or the budget of one's clients.

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[4] James B. Stull, "Rewards for Openness," Journal of Communication, Vol. 28, (1976), pp. 124-130. Will Lorey, "Mutual Trust is the Key to Open Communication," Administrative Management, Vol. 37, (1976), pp. 70-72. And F. J. Carvell, Human Relations in Business (New York: McMillan, 1975), pp. 180-187.

[5] W. C. Redding, "The Organization Communicator," in W. C. Redding and G. A. Sanborn, editors, Business and Industrial Communication: A Source Book, (New York: Harper and Row, 1964), pp. 27-37.

[6] Rensis Likert, "Effective Supervision: An Adoptive and Relative Process," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 11 (1968), pp. 330-332.

[7] N. A. Rosen, Leadership Change and Work Group Dynamics: An Experiment (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1969), pp. 93-114.

In short, techniques or tools that would have a significant impact on students and yet not consume an inordinate amount of class time are often desirable.

The model utilized in planning the following techniques is referred to as modeling behavior. The basic reference for this model is Goldstein and Sorcher's book entitled, Changing Supervisory Behavior (1974). The traditional model and behavior model might appear as in Figure 1.

Within the general framework described in Figure 1, behavior modeling consists of four major learning activities:

1. Modeling, in which trainees watch films of model persons behaving effectively in a problem situation;
2. Role playing, when trainees practice and rehearse in the effective behaviors demonstrated by the models;
3. Social reinforcement provided by trainer and trainees in the form of positive feedback;
4. Transfer of training is encouraged.[8]

Within the framework of behavior modeling and the learning activities, I sought the techniques and tools that would convey the meaning and importance of openness to students and supervisors. I believe there are several available tools that can be utilized within the above model. I chose, first, a film staged around the behavior roles identified by Bales.[9] These roles are usually described as great man, task specialists, social specialists, overactive deviant, and underactive deviant. The film casts these five roles in a critical decision making situation. The role of the great man is developed based on the ability to be open and supportive of communication with the other four role behaviors. At several critical points in the film, the film is halted and the student is asked to respond to certain questions about what is happening and what should be the next step. In this first segment, the student sees the correct behavior, is required to respond to the model behavior, and is given positive support by the peer group and instructor for the written responses.

The second segment of the session starts with a complete running of the same film or one very similar. The remainder of the hour is spent in role playing exercise--students both as participants and observers. Ideally, each student has the opportunity to participate in the role playing exercise. I use short critical incidents to establish the situation for each role playing exercise. Each observer's work sheet, which is provided, has instructions which suggest that only positive remarks should be make. The observer is to report only those factors, words, actions, and behaviors that are considered positive in nature.

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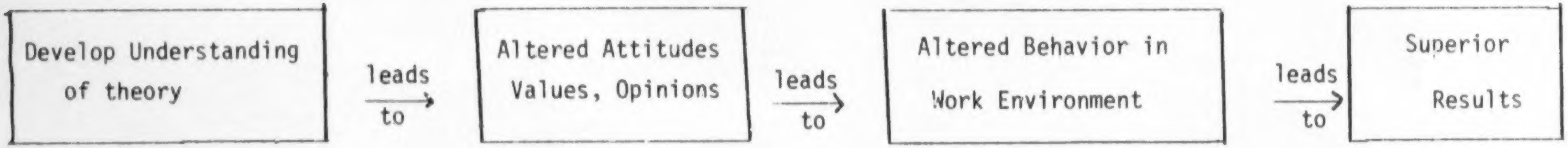
[8] Allen Kraut, "Developing Managerial Skills Via Modeling Techniques: Some Positive Research Findings," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 29 (1976), pp. 325-326.

[9] R. F. Bales, Interaction Process Analysis (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Company, 1950).

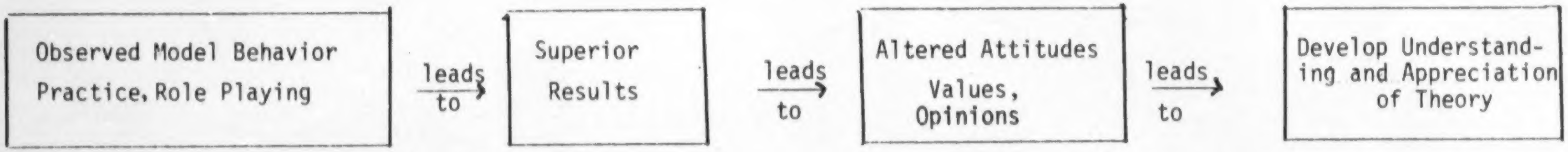
FIGURE 1

TRADITIONAL MODEL


Develop Understanding of theory
leads to
Altered Attitudes Values, Opinions
leads to
Altered Behavior in Work Environment
leads to
Superior Results

(Adopted from Goldstein and Sorcher, 1974)

BEHAVIOR MODELING


Observed Model Behavior Practice, Role Playing
leads to
Superior Results
leads to
Altered Attitudes Values, Opinions
leads to
Develop Understanding and Appreciation of Theory

(Adopted from Goldstein and Sorcher, 1974)

After the role playing exercise is completed and the observers make their reports, the students are instructed to develop a critical incident of their own, based on their work environment--"back home." This is a written assignment, which is usually completed within the session. Even though these incidents are at best very sketchy in descriptions, they usually provide enough substance for another round of role playing exercises for the students. After this second round of role playing, I go into a rather standard lecture/discussion of communication theory. The basic theme is the different models of communication, with an emphasis on the potential areas for noise or barriers to communication. This topic is much more readily accepted at this point in the session than if it is presented earlier in the session.

As you may have decided, this set of activities are a full three hours worth of class time. It is also easily adopted to one half day sessions for a training program. The materials that must be developed ahead of time are: film, questionnaire for film, critical incidents, observer work sheets and instructions. I believe the model I have presented is especially effective for graduate courses that are taught in three hour blocks and consulting arrangements in which you have a block of time to develop a topic. Of course, the topic I have developed my training session around is superior openness in communication patterns. I believe it has a significant impact upon the students and participants in the session.

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PART V
PSYCHOLOGY, PARAPSYCHOLOGY AND COMMUNICATION

ANXIETY OR HOSTILITY: MISREADING THE COMMUNICATION

Franklin S. Williams, University of Arkansas

ABSTRACT

Communication is more than an exchange of words, it is an exchange of feelings. What are the feelings behind the communication, and what is happening when we believe we "hear" hostility but anxiety is the real message. How to recognize this situation, how to prepare for it, what to do about it. We live in an anxious world where people may be only asking for help while we get angry over hostility that isn't there.

INTRODUCTION

Let us keep in mind right now that communication is more than an exchange of words, it is an exchange of feelings. And the effect of the feelings is what remains with us after it is all over. Feelings are difficult to assess and easily misunderstood. We talk here of a misunderstanding about feelings, and of what can be done about it.

Why has it taken me so long to realize that when feelings run high, anxiety and hostility often sound alike. The situation we are discussing now is where the other person is anxious but we think they're hostile.

Let's make the scene the breakfast table. You've gone downstairs ahead of time and now have breakfast--eggs, toast, juice, and tea--ready. Another minute and you'd have everything totally cleaned up, but your partner arrives. On her mind is a later meeting that morning with her boss, and she comes down anxious, tense, and easily irritated. She looks around and says: "My, this kitchen is surely torn up; crumbs there, orange juice still out of the refrigerator, and what's this over here?" This is fairly strong talk, it hits you a little hard. There may be trouble for you both, right now.

Where does your partner's emotion come from? Let's assume she has a strong need for order and predictability. Order in her kitchen, predictability through her day. She hadn't expected to see a kitchen in what she sees as disorder. She is anxious that it be put back in order, and anxious about her unpredictable day ahead when she must talk to her boss.

Her irritation and anxiety comes over in a loud tone, and you easily read it as anger and hostility. You "hear", not irritation and anxiety, but anger.

You too have an unfulfilled need (much of it because of her strong words). You'd like approval and appreciation. You've been hurrying to get breakfast on the table and expecting some positive response, not complaints. Because of your unfulfilled need you have a strong emotion: resentment and hostility. You also have a need for justice. You feel it's not fair. At least she could show some appreciation.

Our purpose is to find out what's going on here, and to know what can be done. What's going on is a misreading or disregard of feelings, emotions sustained by unfulfilled needs, and a rising level of anxiety and/or hostility between you both.

Angry and disappointed, it is easy for you to retaliate with angry words. "What do you mean? How about a little help around here?" This is your anger and it comes over that way. Heavily charged with emotion, both your words and hers will mask the deepest feelings felt by both of you. Recall the basic feelings that have not been communicated by either of you:

> P: ". . kitchen torn up . . . orange juice out . . . what's this" (Feelings of worry about seeing her boss, discouragement over seeing kitchen out of order)
>
> You: "What do you mean . . . how about . . . help" (Feelings of rejection, injustice, disappointment and now anger)

Both latent hostility and latent anxiety characterize neurosis, and I suspect we all carry them around with us much of the time. Threatened by uncertainty or a feeling that life may be out of control, our latent anxiety may be triggered and we easily escalate into fear. Irritations and frustrations--over situations and circumstances that 9 times out of 10 will prove to be trivial and of no real importance--can easily trigger our latent hostility, and we quickly escalate into full-blown anger.

It's not too difficult to set out the sequence: Hostility heard--hostility returned--anxieties deepened as worries appear--resentment--feelings of injustice--first the kitchen, then the day going out of control--feeling attacked--the need to defend--escalating hostility.

It only takes a few seconds before this can grow into mutual unhappiness, statements about "we don't get along any more" or "we aren't really suited to each other" or "I don't really love you" or "I need to get away." If this situation were to happen only once, or not often, we could more easily get over it and put it behind us. But it can happen too easily and too often. Old wounds are reopened and remembered. We may finally give up, lapse into silence, and live out our lives in quiet desperation.

When we suffer another's anger, we often feel the need to defend ourselves. We want to pay them back for this injustice, and even add a little more than we received. Evening the score helps restore our self-esteem and strong emotional outbursts give us a better chance to feel the emotion cool down a little.

So, with the desire for justice and the need to even the score, we tend to react to the other person more emotionally than before. Now the situation escalates rapidly; in a few seconds both of us can be precipitated into boiling anger. What is so sad is that now we are ready to say things that we will forget but that the other person may always remember.

What can be done: I believe we should at least do the following if at all possible:

trust their intentions
give them the benefit of the doubt
try VERY HARD to understand
avoid an emotional reaction until you know what's going on
try to recognize and react to the true feeling

and then you either:

ask a question to find out what's going on,
or say "how I feel" without judging or condemning

First, if it is a close relationship where we have had time to know the other person really cares, is truly interested in us, respects our rights, and wants to understand, we can begin with trust. We can trust their intentions. They don't intend to injure us. When they are angry they will say more than they mean and we must be determined to remember this when the anger starts. Saying to myself "you don't really mean that" or "in a few minutes you won't mean what you are saying now" can help we weather the storm and keep me from remembering too much, much more than my friend truly meant to say.

Giving them the benefit of the doubt is another way of trusting their intentions. My old friend Chauncey Ferguson had the secret. "Whenever I hear something angry or critical, my first reaction is: HE PROBABLY DIDN'T MEAN IT THAT WAY." Acting on this assumption, Chauncey handled many disagreements and otherwise irritating situations with a calmness and strength that preserved his own peace of mind, helped make him loved and respected by the community, and made him a positive factor in the mental health of all who knew him. "If there is any doubt, I first assume he didn't mean it that way. And I act on that." His was a special kind of wisdom.

We need to try very hard to understand. Not just try but very hard. Sometimes this is difficult, and we must be determined. And we must look for and try to react to the true feelings of the other person. If I had known my wife was worried about the day facing her, I could have heard her remarks as worry and tenseness, not anger. Had I responded to this, I could have helped her with her problem emotions and avoided an angry confrontation over a trivial situation.

If possible, then, I can try to avoid an emotional reaction until I know what's really going on. Notice how trusting their intentions and assuming the other person doesn't mean it that way can help us avoid a premature emotional escalation. Two years ago when we talked about the anger problem over at Hahn Air Force Base, we spoke of people's need for JUSTICE in an argument. One student took this idea home and came back with a solution he and his wife worked out. Whey they began to get mad, one would say, "Well, I don't need justice" and the other would usually respond, "I don't need justice, either". This usually stopped the escalation.

Finally you can take one of two possible actions that I have found helpful. Either 1) ask a question to find out what's going on, such as "Are you really disturbed about the kitchen, or is something else really bothering you?"--or 2) try stating how you feel. This needs to be how you feel WITHOUT BLAMING THEM. Thus, "that makes me feel I've really hurt you" or "that makes me feel I shouldn't bother with breakfast". When the other person backseats on your driving, you might say: "now I feel so nervous maybe I should not even drive" or "I feel it's no use trying to go places any more in the car".

This expression of feelings does rest on the assumption that you can trust the person. It assumes a belief in their goodness. Hopefully many past communications between you have confirmed your belief in each other, your mutual acceptance and love. What you are doing now, by word or action, is giving out this message: "I want to find out what's going on--what's really bothering you. Right now I assume you don't mean that. I refuse to be angry right now."

What you are insisting on is this: since someone must take the step to try to keep us from escalating into mutual hostility and perhaps even violence and hate, you will assume that responsibility.

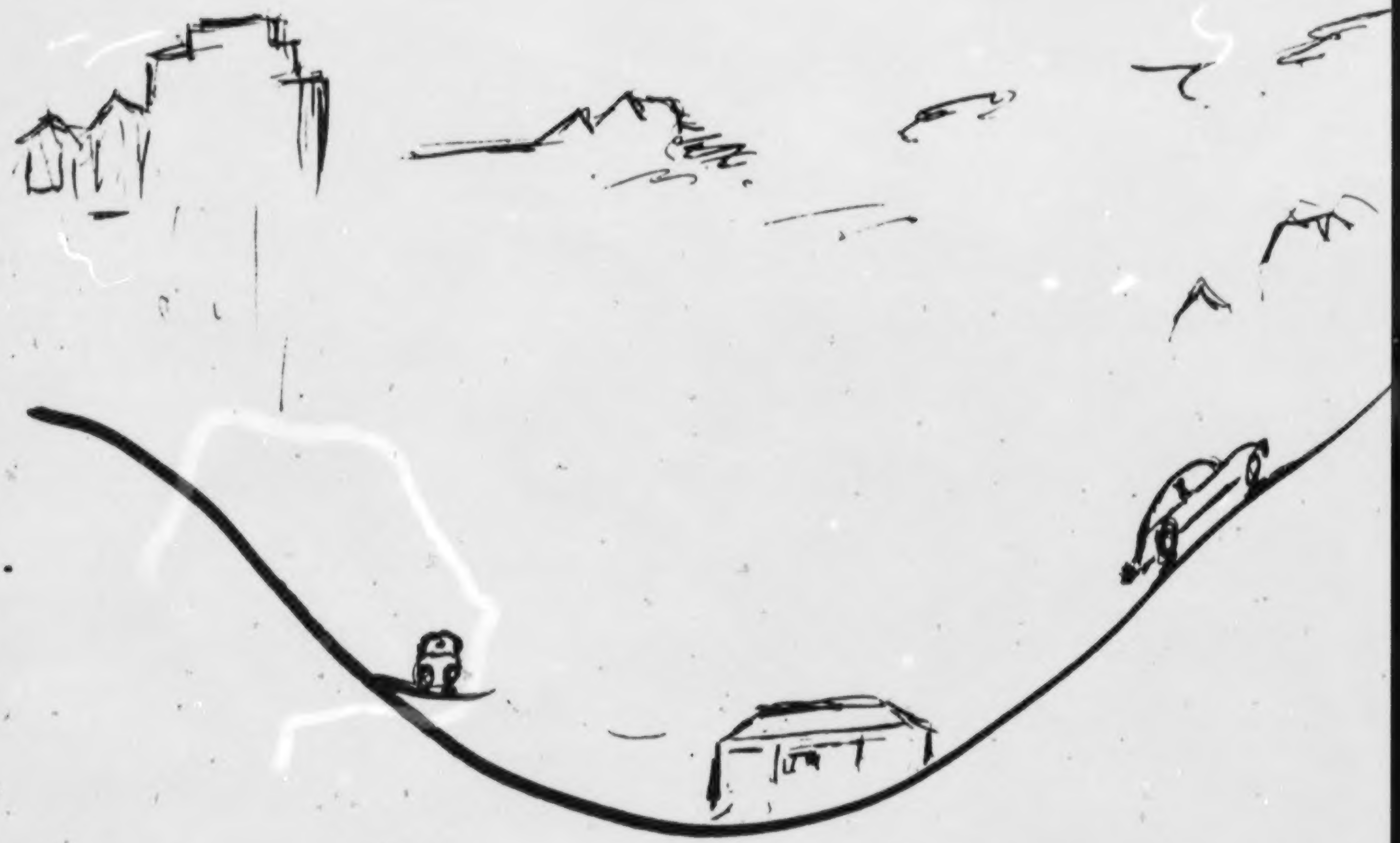
An important caution: if you are merely silent every time this happens, your silence implies you were in the wrong. If you are continually in the wrong, this puts you in the position of the inferior in this partnership. If you must always be the inferior, you tend to become a non-person. Each of you must be careful to avoid a situation where one assumes the role of the "bad guy" who must back down and give up his rights whenever faced with an emotional outburst.

So the recommendation is to avoid emotional retaliation and then proceed to get things out in the open. You give the other person a chance to let you know what he feels and what he does not mean to say.

For this process to be successful, it is well to get an understanding in advance as to what you both will try to do when the other person begins to get steamed up. It may be to use a clue statement, like my Air Force Captain and his wife who learned to say, "I don't need justice. Now what are we arguing about, really?"

Anxiety and hostility often do live in the same person, ready to break out and violate others whom we truly hate to injure at all. At that point where violent argument is about to break out, when we stand poised to strike back and open old wounds, maybe we can catch ourselves in time. It is often hard to be human. We must often forgive and have compassion for one another. Our action must somehow confirm our confidence in their goodness, our belief that they intend us no injury. If we can assume the other person will only feel this way for a few moments and that this is not his true feeling about us, we can then stay open to the truth.

We must not be too busy, too hurried, too tense and anxious, to trust. Somehow we must learn to work out a signal: I will not let us hurt each other this way. And we can know that what may appear to be hostility is only a cry for help.



"WHY didn't you see me?"

-- another cry for help

THE APPLICATION OF PARAPSYCHOLOGY TO BUSINESS COMMUNICATION AND OTHER BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE OFFERINGS

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ABSTRACT

Parapsychology, which can be interpreted as "subjective communication," offers new opportunities to teachers and researchers of behavioral science in general and business communication in particular. This article explores the possibility of wedding parapsychology with business communication so that a higher level of communication can be achieved. In addition, such a meshing of the two seemingly unrelated fields provides for a whole-person concept of message congruency. While emphasis is given to business communication primarily, there exists other possible behavioral science relationships to be investigated, particularly from organizational development and accounting communication.

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The following quotation by Abraham Maslow, the eminent psychologist, reflects in essence the basic philosophy in undertaking this study.

> My general thesis is that many of the communication difficulties between persons are the product of communication barriers *within* the person; and that communication between the person and the world... depends largely on their isomorphism (i.e., similarity of structure or form); that the world can communication to a person only that of which he is worthy, that which he deserves or is "up to"; that to a large extent, he can receive from the world, and give to the world, only that which he himself is...[1]

In addition to Maslow's ideas, perhaps some more immediate background facts into how this study came about would be useful at this point. Some business communicators may recall hearing or reading a paper given at the 1975 Houston convention by Jim Carter entitled, "Creativity: How Does It Work for Open Organization Communication?"[2] That paper stimulated a continuing interest in the creative process of human communication and its philosophical/theoretical underpinnings as well as new types of relationships possible using current communication thought.

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[1] Abraham Maslow, *The Farther Reaches of Human Nature*, The Viking Press, New York, 1971, p. 155.

In the fall prior to that meeting, three North Texas State professors attended an Expanding Awareness Conference in Kansas City conducted by prominent group leaders from the Esalen Institute in Big Sur, California--the citadel of the human potentialities movement (Third Force) in psychology.

When these three North Texas professors reached the Kansas City meeting and began attending the sessions, they looked around for other *business* colleagues from the 500-plus present. But there *were* none that could be located or identified. Most of the people there were practicing professionals all right but they represented the rehabilitation, occupational, and medical therapy areas--that is, the hard-core healing areas. Yet the point seemed clear: most people had given little thought to applying the human potentialities movement to business even though the experiential movement did produce a few writings relating the area to business at the time. Not one of the three professors felt really competent in attempting such an application even after attending the meeting. But they *liked* what they experienced, they saw *relationships* to business, and they felt a need to *do something*.

Accordingly, two of them developed an experimental course entitled, "Human Potentialities in Business." Some of the things they attempted in the course are quite common today in business curricula although there is a question as to how *far* such courses *should* go. *Most* of the things presented to the students were "farmed out"; that is, the professors brought in competent, practicing professionals in selected areas and asked them to demonstrate their expertise and relate it to business. One of the persons selected was a certified instructor for the Silva Mind Control Institute. And it was that initial contact with parapsychology that led the authors to take a 48-hour course from Silva. This paper reflects the authors' *common* and *unique*--but selective--perceptions of their learning experiences in the area of parapsychology as they experienced it from Silva Mind Control. It should be noted that Silva Mind Control represents only one approach to the study of parapsychology.

PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS

Much has been said and written on the mechanics of good expression through the medium of the written word. The expression,

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[2] Jim Carter, "Creativity: How Does It Work for Open Organizational Communication?", 1975 Southwest ABCA *Proceedings*, pp. 27-45.

"Keep the reader in mind," rings clear throughout the literature and pedagogy of business communication. Similar expressions are also appropriate in the area of human relations involving face-to-face encounters, as with management use of organizational development techniques. The point of this investigation is that the effectiveness of such communication lies beyond grammatical expressions and overt actions, vital though these particular aspects are. This "beyond" encompasses the recognition of individuals as unique human beings with different needs, experiences, and reactions. In other words, it is the whole-person concept that is of interest here--where there is a congruency between what a person *says* on the *outside* and what he *feels* beneath the organizational iceberg on the *inside*. Such a venture into this "whole-person" idea evolves through the applications of parapsychology to business communication and, since the latter is interdisciplinary, to other offerings that involve the area of behavioral science.

To further understand what is meant by this whole-person concept, the noted semanticist, Bois, describes man as a "thinking, feeling, self-moving, electro-chemical organism in continuous transaction with a space-time environment."[3] Moreover, Bois notes three distinct levels of human communication:

> *Communication 1*. This level involves the recognition of presence-at-a-distance. There is the making of conversation, pleasantries, etc., with established conventions of politeness and formality--as with a diplomat, a politician, or an acquiescent spouse. The level represents communication without engagement.
>
> *Communication 2*. Here the communicators engage in an exchange of semantic energies--as with a depate or a dialogue--using the rules of clever logic. The level represents communication patterned after action and reaction.
>
> *Communication 3*. This level is a ritual transaction as, a blending of semantic reactions, a sharing of feelings, values, and purpose--fully expressed and fully acknowledged. It is better described as communion rather than communication, since the symbiotic experience is the focus, and the exchange of thoughts is merely a by-product.[4]

In its *purest* form, communication with an individual at the third level represents a blending of semantic reactions, a sharing of feelings, values, and purposes, fully expressed and fully acknowledged. Obviously, such complete empathy is rarely achieved, since most communication takes place on a much lower level patterned after action and reaction--as with an exchange of semantic energies in a debate or dialogue. In Bois' opinion, "Successful communication is still in too many cases for us to feel complacent about it, a matter of sheer luck."[5] Consequently, whatever innovations can be brought to bear in order to further human understanding through effective communication appear to be worth the effort even though to some they may appear to be rather "far out." And this novelty represented an interest in little explored ways of trying to understand the uniqueness of an individual and how this uniqueness related to a higher form of communication. The involvement of the whole person in such efforts seems to be essential, and a possible technique in furthering this understanding lies in the area of parapsychology.

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[3] J. Samuel Bois, *The Art of Awareness: A Textbook on General Semantics*, Wm. C. Brown Co. Publishers, Dubuque, Iowa, 1966, p. 22.

[4] J. Samuel Bois, *Communication As Creative Experience*, Viewpoint Publications No. 1, Viewpoints Institute, Inc., Los Angeles, 1968, p. 20.

To many people--and perhaps to some business communicators--"parapsychology" may seem to be a four-letter word. They may associate it negatively to certain types of television coverages and to motion pictures about the supernatural, such as the award-winning, "The Exorcist." Despite such possible connotations, there are experiences regarding its potentialities that have been largely of a positive nature.

WHAT PARAPSYCHOLOGY MEANS

The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language defines parapsychology as "The study of phenomena such as telepathy, clairvoyance, and psychokinesis that are not explainable by known natural laws." The word, parapsychology, itself means literally "like psychology." More appropriately, many authorities prefer to define it is "subjective communication," and that is the sense in which it will be used in this study. In the authors' continuing endeavors, there was discovered a positive base which has made each of the roles they live more satisfying--in their families, in their churches, in personal friendships, in their work as teachers and advisors, and in business communication and interdisciplinary courses involving the elements of behavioral science. It should be stressed again at this point that Silva Mind Control represents only one approach to the field of parapsychology, but it was positive in terms of human potential, professional in terms of research underpinning, and competently taught in terms of certification.[6]

HOW PARAPSYCHOLOGY RELATES TO COURSE OFFERINGS

Parapsychology--from the Silva Mind Institute--teaches that the subjective/non-conscious mind stores everything, and that basically people have been programmed to be negative in thought and in outlook. Consequently, the purpose should be to retrain peoples minds--at lower than conscious levels--to be positive and good. In this process, people should never participate in negative conversations, and they should use certain techniques daily to condition their minds at altered states of consciousness for success and positive results.

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[5] *Loc. cit.*

[6] Much of the work of the Silva Mind Control Institute is copyrighted and available only through certified programs and instructors. Because of the nature of the material, only general comments can be made about the program. The authors do not intend to advertise the course, by any means. Whatever inferences are made should be checked against the course content for validity, at the reader's discretion.

How such "positive thinking" relates to business communication is perhaps obvious. The famed principles of functional writing do much the same thing. For instance, the principle of positive emphasis, in essence, does as much to condition the mind of the sender as well as the receiver of the message. Also, before persons can truly apply the "you" viewpoint to others, they must first have a well-defined concept themselves. And so, too, can the principles of conversational tone, emphasis, transition, etc., apply as ways of conditioning the mind positively for both the communicator and the communicatee. Similar points could also be made for all the concepts taught in theory, letters, and reports in business communication courses. Moveover, since communication is itself an interdisciplinary subject, what can apply here perhaps has far-reaching applications to all business subjects and, indeed, to areas outside the realm of business.

These aspects of business communication present many opportunities for understanding the individualized human beings in the business environment. Both graduate and undergraduate courses in business communication at most every university endeavor to reduce barriers to human understanding. Such efforts often include an introduction to Korzybski's--the founder of General Semantics--basic principles of non-identity (the word is not the thing), non-allness (words do not represent all the territory), and self-reflexiveness (an ordering of abstractions on the verbal level). According to Korzybski, mankind can thus be freed from the "tyranny of words" and made aware of things, facts, and operations in the ways they are related to nature, instead of the way they are talked about.[7]

Crossing over into other disciplines, Communication Theory can apply to management organizational development principles. Organizational Development has been defined by Herman as "An approach to the management of organizations that recognizes human interpersonal (interactional) processes...and an organization ethic that seriously and purposefully attends to the humanness of the people who work within."[8] And in the accounting discipline, much ignorance and miscommunication presents itself in much of what is included in the financial statements issued and attested to. This miscommunication seems primarily due to a lack of awareness by the sender of the unique receiver of such messages. Thus communication becomes garbled in the process of accounting through translation, interpretation, and adaptation.

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[7] Note the technical references to multidimensional order, structure, function, and levels of abstractions in the general semantic discipline.

[8] Stanley M. Herman, "What is This Thing Called Organization Development?", Personnel Journal, August, 1971, p. 598.

Accordingly, selective techniques of parapsychology can be effectively utilized in and out of the classroom in order to break down some of these barriers to communication. An awareness by the instructor of its potential benefits can aid in stressing and understanding the uniqueness of the whole person. For example, as previously mentioned, mind awareness teaches that definite goals can be achieved by "going back" into the subconscious and "programming out" negative thoughts about the individual, his emotions, his feelings, and his potential contributions through the process of what Maslow terms, "self-actualization." It is a definite fact that if the individual is not "sold" on the feasibility of an endeavor (for example, Organizational Development), then the odds for success are nil. A motto in mind control is that, "Every day in every way we are getting better and better." Childish? Perhaps! But, it does represent something positive and constructive. To mind-control advocates, "can't" is one of the forbidden words, and such negative thoughts are "cancelled out."

Wholeness of the individual is stressed through such techniques as mind awareness--using intelligent direction as a selective device for scanning the inner world or the Alpha and Theta levels of the subconscious.[9] Moreover, this area of parapsychology professes to attain empathy--involving "getting into the skin" of another individual, feeling as he does, understanding his emotions, actions, and reactions. Such an approach--to the degree that it is indeed successful--can assist in bringing about a commonness--or at least an acceptance--of outlook, experiences, and goals as effective messages flow from the sender to the receiver. Perhaps much of the lack of success in all areas of human communication result as much from failing to understand the sender as they do from failing to understand the other party. At this point one might ask, "Can genuine communication ever exist without such an understanding?"

CONCLUSIONS

As each semester ends, students should learn more than a few techniques to be applied to letters and reports in business communication classes. Hopefully, they have learned a philosophy about themselves and others--a way of treating people. It is believed that much more can be done in these areas through the use of parapsychology as application is made to leadership, motivation, and communication. Whether educators are training teachers, future business leaders, or others, more activity and attention should be devoted to the personhood of educators themselves and to those being taught. The authors' experience with parapsychology leads them to believe that they have already been doing this to a degree.

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[9] Based on Mind Control research, four levels of brain wave functioning occur: (1) the Beta level, with 14 and above cycles per second; (2) the Alpha level, with 4-17 cycles per second, (3) the Theta level, with 4-7 cycles per second; and (4) the Delta level, with 0-4 cycles per second. Most programming occurs at the Alpha level, without any use of drugs. In other words, students are taught to induce the Alpha state with full recognition and awareness.

They contend, also, that one could take many of the concepts/techniques of Zen, Yoga, Transcendental Meditation, Transactional Analysis, Gestaltism (theory and practice), and many other current human development approaches, combine them in a unique package, and the result would be Mind Control--one approach to parapsychology. But how does business communication fit in with all this?

It, too, draws from many areas--explicitly and implicitly! Business communication--traditionally and currently, specifically and broadly interpreted--does much of the same things that parapsychology purports to do. Also, there is a need to get outside the preimposed parameters of one's immediate fields to learn--at a deeper level of understanding--just how meaningful certain concepts are. This is what happened to the authors' in their experience. They returned with a new commitment/affirmation that *what* they were learning and teaching was *right* all along.

Perhaps such reasoning is circular--in the Korzybskian fashion. Yet such an experience creates more congruence between the inner and outer selves. These explicit statements about parapsychology and its relationship to business communication made here will hopefully help in the enrichment of the business communication discipline, as well as all other business disciplines.

But even more! In the process Bois' higher level of communication can thus be brought closer to reality. And that represents an objective to which all business professionals can strive to attain.

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PART VI
CURRENT ISSUES IN COMMUNICATION

LEGAL IMPLICATIONS OF COMMUNICATION

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ABSTRACT

Just as communicating can be a useful device with which to facilitate the sharing and relating of factual truths, it can many times facilitate perceptual errors and even outright lies. To protect both society and the individual from the often inequitable consequences that communications can have, man through his society developed certain standardized patterns of behavior that must be conformed to when utilizing the communications process. These standards are reflected in modern society through formal laws, and a deviation from "the law" as it is further reflected in legal institutions can have undesirable consequences for those involved.

The purpose of this paper is threefold. First, it shall describe some of the legal implications surrounding what society has determined to be misuse of communications. Secondly, it shall describe a few of the major pitfalls in communications which can result in legal liability. Finally, it shall draw some conclusions upon how individuals can better avoid lawsuits through a more careful use of communications.

This particular area of the law is to a certain extent unrefined (as are most areas of any study) and involves numerous technical rules and theories. The various theoretical and practical foundations which have been accounted for as bases of faulty communications are vast in scope. For these reasons, this paper does not propose to completely analyze the areas which have been enumerated. However, this analysis will attempt to offer some insight into the topic and provide suggestions for coping with the problems it shall identify.

INTRODUCTION

Numerous aspects of the law have ramifications upon what and how people communicate. Some of these areas include misrepresentation, freedom of the press, intentional infliction of emotional distress, and even seemingly unrelated areas such as assault.

This analysis shall limit itself to the study of defamation because it is in dealing with it that individuals usually encounter legal ramifications in the course of everyday communicating. Defamation first developed in early English Common Law and may be described as "that which tends to injure reputation, to diminish the esteem, respect, goodwill, or confidence in which the plaintiff is held, or to excite adverse, derogatory or unpleasant feelings or opinions against him."[1] While this definition may not cover every situation, it should be kept in mind that defamation encompasses the idea of disgrace.

LIBEL AND SLANDER

In dealing with defamatory matters, modern law found it necessary to distinguish those statements which are potentially more harmful due to their lasting nature. Such statements are known as libel and generally involve those words which are detected by sight (as when reading written symbols), while the words usually detected by sound are known as slander.

The difference between these two forms of defamation is often technical and involve a very fine line. For instance, radio and television utterances have the same potentialities for harm as libel (if not more) but nevertheless may be detected by sound and are often categorized as slander. The distinction may vary according to the nature of the case and its corresponding jurisdiction. A helpful description for determining which area a defamatory statement falls into is offered by the Restatement of the Law of Torts:[2]

> "(1) Libel consists of the publication of a defamatory matter by written or printed words, by its embodiment in physical form or by any other form of communication which has the potentially harmful characteristics of written or printed words. (2) All other defamation is slander. (3) The area of dissemination, the deliberate and premeditated character of its publication, and the persistence of the defamatory conduct are factors to be considered in determining whether a publication is a libel rather than slander."

The significance of this distinction varies among jurisdictions. Generally, libel involves a greater amount of damages and also may result in a criminal penalty.

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[1] William L. Prosser, Law of Torts, 4th ed. (St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co., 1971), p. 739.

[2] American Law Institute, Restatement of the Law of Torts (St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co., 1965), sec. 568.

PLEADING DEFAMATION

In order to establish a cause of action for defamation, the plaintiff in a particular case must invariably go through a process of pleading certain facts. First of all, there must be an ascertainable plaintiff; an individual or business enterprise to whom the defamatory words refer. If the statement refers to a group of individuals it must cast sufficient doubt (as determined by the court) upon the particular plaintiff's character. For instance, to say that one member of a group is a criminal without detailing whom that individual is may not cast sufficient doubt to amount to a cause of action. On the other hand, to say that all but one member of a group are criminals, will usually cast sufficient doubt on each individual to establish a right for a lawsuit.

Secondly, the statement must have a defamatory meaning. Such statements may be categorized into groups which have defamatory meanings per se, and those which require logical inference through proof. In the former category there are four basic types of statements which are slanderous or libellous on their face and do not require the use of extrinsic facts: (1) imputation of a crime involving moral turpitude, (2) imputation of a loathesome disease (usually leprosy or a venereal disease), (3) statements incompatible with the proper conduct of a business, trade, profession, or office; and (4) imputing unchastity to a woman. These types of statements are considered defamatory per se because they are viewed as disparaging to the character. If the defamatory statement cannot be categorized as one of the above, then the plaintiff must resort to a process of inference. In this process, the plaintiff must prove the statement defamatory through the following sequence:

1. Proof of the defamatory words ("He burned down his barn.").
2. Inducement. The extrinsic facts because of which the words were reasonably understood to convey a meaning defaming the plaintiff (the defendant pointed at the plaintiff when he spoke, and the third party knew the plaintiff had insurance on his barn).
3. Coloquium. The words were spoken of and concerning the plaintiff ("He", meaning the plaintiff).
4. Innuendo. There must be an allegation of the particular meaning conveyed by the words (the words were understood by a third party to mean that the plaintiff burned down his barn to defraud the insurance company).
5. Special Damages. The damages incurred by the plaintiff because of the defamatory statement must also be alleged in a pecuniary fashion.

The third and final requisite that must be pleaded in order to establish a cause of action is known as publication. This involves the communication of the defamatory words to someone other than the person defamed.

DEFENSES TO ACTIONS OF DEFAMATION

The first and most frequent defense to an action for defamation is that the statement made was true. While a communication does not have to be false to be defamatory, it must be false to be legally actionable. The establishment of a truth is a burden upon the defendant. The reasoning behind placing the burden of proof in this manner is in order that honest men will not be placed in a position whereby they must render another individual's statement untrue in order to maintain their reputation in the community. The resulting significance is that each person must carry the responsibility of validating their own statements.

The second type of defense encompasses a broader field of possibilities. It is known as qualified privilege and generally involves a statement made in good faith relating to a subject in which the person making the communication is interested or in regard to which he has a social or moral duty and made to one having a like interest or duty. This defense can best be summarized as follows:

1. Protection of a Legitimate Self Interest. A communication made by a person immediately concerned with an interest in the subject matter to which it relates, for the purpose of protecting his own interest in full belief that the communication is true and without any malicious motive.
2. Protection of a Legitimate Third Party Interest. "An occasion is conditionally privileged when circumstances offer a correct or reasonable belief that:
   (a) facts exist which affect the well being of a member of the immediate family or business enterprise of the recipient or a third person; and
   (b) the recipient's knowledge of the defamatory matter will be of service in the lawful protection of such person's well being; and
   (c) the recipient that has requested the publication of the defamatory matter is a person to whom its publication is otherwise within generally accepted standards of decent conduct."[3]
3. Protection of a Common Interest. A communication made upon any subject matter in which a party communicating has an interest, or in reference to which he has a duty when made to a person having a corresponding interest or duty.
4. Protection of a Public Interest. A communication to public officers or others who may reasonably be expected to take some effective action in a matter of public rather than private importance concerning a matter reasonably expected to be of their concern in the performance of their duties is excused from liability.

The above mentioned defenses to actions for defamation are termed "qualified" due to the manner that they are contingent upon the nature of the relationships between the one making the statement, the person to whom it is made, and the individual about whom the statement refers. Another class of defenses are given a more definite basis. This group is generalized under the heading of "absolute privilege." While this area may concern a number of possible defenses, two are of particular significance to this paper.

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[3] Ibid, sec. 568, comment (b).

First are the privileged communications between husband and wife. The absolute privilege of making any publication, however defamatory, extends from one spouse to another. Secondly, a statement may be privileged on the basis of consent. The consent, invitation, or instigation of the plaintiff confers an absolute privilege to publish defamatory matters within the scope of such consent.

COMMUNICATION FACTORS LEADING TO LEGAL RAMIFICATIONS

There are any number of possible reasons which might lead an individual to make a defamatory statement. It should be emphasized that this analysis shall not attempt to deal with all of them even if it could. Nevertheless, by analyzing some of the more notable reasons, an insight into why defamations occur can be developed.

The basic manner in which each person's perception is a product of how his own internal state and his environment affects the truth of his statements in terms of reality. One who assumes that "his world is the only real world may find that world in almost constant jeopardy. Closed and defensive he may respond to the threat with irrational attack...".[4] A situation such as this may lead one to make statements out of alignment with reality and sometimes defamatory. For instance, Joe's Fruit Stand may be a profitable enterprise until a Safeway store is established across the street from it. Joe may become so frustrated with the fact that old customers are turning to the new business that he might defensively state that the big supermarket is able to lure away his patronage by advertising third rate produce as grade A. Joe may strongly feel that this is actually the case, but if he cannot prove it factually in court, a statement such as this is slanderous per se by affecting the business of his competition and is an actionable defamation.

Another possible problem involving a civil lawsuit may arise through bypassing whereby a same or similar word is used to represent two different ideas. Farmer Brown may tell his top hired hand to use his daughter as a "hoer" if the situation on the farm gets so bad that other workers must be laid-off. When celery hits rock-bottom prices, the hired hand may go to the local tavern and tell the boys that for the right price Farmer Brown's daughter is available as a "whore". Of course, this is imputing unchastity to a woman and Farmer Brown's daughter could sue the hired hand. (This example has discounted the perceptual ramification between "hoer" (ho er) and whore (hor), and assumes that local semantic pronunciations are synonymous).

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[4] William V. Haney, Communication and Organizational Behavior (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967), p. 77.

Another communication problem might develop through judging the whole by its parts. Joe, the owner of the fruit stand in the previous example, might see a head of lettuce that is not grade A but which was sold as grade A by his competitor. Grocery stores are often allowed minimal errors in their grading of quality. Joe may then state to a patron that Safeway sells grade C lettuce as grade A lettuce. Through the inducement-coloquium-innuendo process, attorneys may prove in court that Joe meant that this is a consistent practice on the part of Safeway. By further proving that this statement has caused a loss of patronage to Safeway and negatively affected their store image, Joe's competitors have a legal cause for action which can demand payment for damages.

Still another legal problem may result through the assumption of nonchange. Bill Thug may have been sent to the penitentiary for murder and is now out on parole. Frank Pabst, the owner of a local bar might instruct his personnel to not allow Bill to enter the bar because "once a killer, always a killer" and further infer that Bill has and will commit more murders. This is an imputation of a crime of moral turpitude and can be the basis for an action of slander.

A further example of the manner in which communication problems lead to legal consequences is by the grapevine. While this analysis does not mean to discount the numerous values the grapevine can have in an organization, "on the other hand, considerable ambiguity, possible deletions, and frequent embellishments often serve to distort the original message."[5] For example, B sees A came home late last night from her date with her boyfriend and tells C that "A came home late last night from her date." C may then tell D "A stayed out all night with her boyfriend." D may then tell E "A has been shacking up with her boyfriend." A will have a basis for an action of defamation against D, and perhaps C for imputing unchastity to a woman depending upon how well each statement corresponds to the truth as interpreted by a court of law.

While these examples are certainly not all inclusive as indicators on how faulty communication can lead to legal liability, they do serve as illustrations of how easily defamation can occur. A further note should be added regarding the way that slanderous and libellous statements can also be intentional in the sense that they are known to be false and are intended to defame the subject. The law views such occasions as deserving increased penalties in the form of punitive damages.

RECOMMENDATIONS TO ALLEVIATE THE POSSIBILITY OF DEFAMATION

Using the analysis to this point, several recommendations can be made which can help to partially eliminate the possibility of defamation.

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[5] John W. Newstrom, Robert E. Monczka, and William E. Reif, "Perceptions of the Grapevine: Its Value and Influence," Journal of Business Communication, Vol. 11, No. 3 (Spring, 1974), p. 13.

From a communications standpoint, individuals must close the gap between sensory reality and normative reality. This can be done through several means. Some of the general methods include (1) recognize the mechanical limitations of the communication process that distort ideas as they are transferred between individuals; (2) analyze the limitations intensional orientation places upon perceptual reality and develop an extensional orientation; (3) carefully scrutinize the reliability of the source of information in a particular situation and take this into account when further communicating relevant matter; (4) be conscious of the possibilities of semantic differences distorting the communicated idea; and (5) take time to evaluate the factual basis of the communication rather than being motivated by instantaneous reactions.

From a legal standpoint, there are three basic rules which may help to avoid defamation lawsuits. First, analyze the nature of the communication. Ask, "Is this matter potentially slanderous?" If there is reasonable suspicion that it is, make an attempt to validate it before relating it to another. Secondly, preface potentially defamatory statements by referring to its source. Rather than say "Joe is a crook," one might communicate the statement as "Bob says Joe is a crook." The difference between these two statements can have tremendous impact in a court of law. Finally, analyze the relationship between the subject, the respondant, and yourself. Determine whether or not a legal privilege exists through which the statement can be made. Also, it is important to analyze the relationship from a social standpoint and determine whether the nature of the situation (friends, business associates, etc.) will reduce or magnify the possibility of lawsuit.

By using these general checks when communicating each individual can reduce the risk of liability.

SEXIST LANGUAGE: DO AMERICAN BUSINESS COMMUNICATORS SAY WHAT THEY MEAN?

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ABSTRACT

Business communication should be structured to include all segments of the readers or listeners for whom messages are intended. Care should be exercised to insure that the originators of messages say what they actually mean rather than assume that the various individuals who receive the communication will be able to identify with terminology restricted to only one specified group.

Verbal language that segregates instead of integrates the two sexes, the different races, and the various nationalities serves the interest of a caste system. Such an approach is not in keeping with the contemporary American commitment to human rights of individuals, ". . . with liberty and justice for all."

INTRODUCTION

Effective communication can do more to promote good human relations than any other tool available to American business leaders today. Not large monetary investment, but truly sincere commitment, is the requirement for real communication with all of the members of a reading or listening audience. By departing from inconsistent use of many words, the sensitive, skillful writer or speaker can use language that includes everyone.

VOCABULARY OF CHANGE

Changes in the meanings of existing words, addition of new words, and modification of word applications have been evidenced as the United States has grown from the small, new nation of 200 years ago into the international leader of the present age.

Human Rights

It is well known that the President of the United States has declared national commitment to worldwide human rights. Certainly if America is to promote human rights in other countries, equality must begin at home. The practice of implication rather than actual inclusion does not award the individual dignity that could be acknowledged by removing sexist language and role stereotyping. The two sexes clearly embody all humankind, regardless of race, creed, color, or national origin.

The people who rose to the challenge of change, not the ones who resisted the "threat" of progress, were the Americans who developed this country into a powerful, respected nation. Actions and attitudes are reflected by words. Language is a communication tool that should be applied in accordance with the trend of the times and the value system of the people.

Inaccurate Implication

To presume that "dishwasher" and "housewife" should be associated is as outmoded as to declare that "ship" and "fireman" are directly connected. Many people who use dishwashers everyday are single, divorced, or widowed and live in apartments! It is just as appropriate to adapt to "homemaker" as it is to say "pilot."

"Househusband" is no better than "housewife;" both words contain gender-marking terms that imply an inaccurate meaning. Men are husbands of wives who are women, not houses. By the same token, women are wives of husbands who are men, not houses.

Any adult, regardless of sex, marital status, or occupation, is very likely to be either a part-time of full-time homemaker. An individual makes a home in some kind of dwelling place which may be a house, an apartment, or other multifamily structure--and persons who marry certainly do not marry houses!

IMPACT OF WORDS

Verbal expressions serve to fix subconcious values or directives in the minds of listeners and readers. For this reason, precise word choice to signify equal treatment of the sexes is just as important as careful word selection to indicate any other specific meaning that a speaker or writer may wish to relate.

Excluded Members

Why does the typical, traditional written communication all too often exclude 51 per cent of the population of the United States? Among that 51 per cent can be found consumers of all types of goods; candidates for all categories of employment; clients for all kinds of professional services; and counselors for various educational, legal, and medical clientele. All of these roles are filled by both women and men, a fact that American business should recognize in verbal communication.

Nobody says "stallionpower;" "horse" is the logical term because it identifies the kind of live being that is suitable for the task (or measurement.) It is the capability of the horse, whether male or female, that is important, not the sex of the animal. It is also the ability of the person, whether male or female, that is important, and not the sex of the human being.

"Horsepower"--not "stallionpower" or "marepower" or "geldingpower"--is the word used and accepted. Why, then, is "manpower" used instead of "humanpower" or "personnel"--or even the more popularly, if slowly, accepted "human resources?" Any of these terms includes all people, just as "horsepower" includes all horses.

"Generic" Person

In Sexism and Language, a publication of the National Council of Teachers of English, Stanley writes:

> The arguments advanced in favor of man and mankind as the generic person are not substantive; they are political. The Oxford English Dictionary states clearly in its definition of man that the generic usage of this noun is "obsolete," and the editors go on to note that "in modern apprehension man is thus used primarily denotes the male sex, though by implication referring also to women." (Italics added.) Note that women are included in man as referents only by implication, not inference! Unless there is some indication in the immediate context in which man is used that the writer/speaker intends for it to refer to persons of both sexes, we cannot pretend that it does. With respect to the phrase, a man, the OED is equally explicit: The phrase is used "quasipronominally" for one, or any one (sic), but it "implies a reference to the male sex only."[1]

By adhering to that which has been defined as obsolete usage of the language, women are ignored while mares are included because "horse" rather than "stallion" happened to be the word adopted in the days of yore. Jets aften transport messages that contain terminology that echoes trends and values of pony express times.

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[1] Alleen Pace Nilsen, et. al., Sexism and Language, National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, Illinois, 1977, pp. 51-52.

SEXISM IN LANGUAGE

"Sexism" has been defined by the National Council of Teachers of English as:

> . . .words or actions that arbitrarily assign roles or characteristics to people on the basis of sex. Originally used to refer to practices that discriminated against women, the term now includes any usage that unfairly delimits the aspirations or attributes of either sex. Neither men nor women can reach their full potential when men are conditioned to be only aggressive, analytical, and active, and women are conditioned to be only submissive, emotional, and passive. The man who cannot cry and the woman who cannot command are equally victims of their socialization.[2]

"Sexist language" is a relatively new term in the vocabularies of many American authors and editors. Textbook companies, however, are making an effort to promote equal treatment of women and men in the language of the books offered for adoption by schools, colleges, and universities.

Leading textbook companies, as well as the National Council of Teachers of English, have published guidelines to insure that the goals of contemporary American society are reflected in reading material that is made available to youth groups enrolled in schools.

The terms found in the titles of the textbook company guidelines include such expressions as:

"fair and balanced treatment"[3]
"equal treatment"[4]
"creating positive images"[5]

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[2] Alleen Pace Nilsen, et. al., Sexism and Language, National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, Illinois, 1977, p. 182.

[3] Guidelines: Fair and Balanced Treatment of Minorities and Women, South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, 1976, front cover page.

[4] Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes in McGraw-Hill Book Company Publications, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, front cover page.

[5] Macmillan Guidelines for Creating Positive Sexual and Racial Images in Education Materials, Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., New York, 1975, front cover page.

Stanley disproves the theory that natural gender actually describes noun classification and reference in American usage of the English language. The statement,

> . . .the semantic space of English is structured in accordance with the sex-role stereotypes of our society.[7]

briefly expresses the substance of various quotations Stanley uses to illustrate that "generic" references are not based on linguistics. Many passages support the position that the "generic he" and the "generic man" exclude the female. In each case, the female is at some point recognized by inserting "she" or "woman" in the portion which does apply to her, but clearly is omitted in all other parts of the quotations.

The textbook company guidelines treat "generic" use of the masculine noun, masculine pronoun, "man" prefix, and "man" suffix.

Unacceptable terms and positive alternatives are shown in each of the textbook company manuals. Use of articles or plurals is recommended and illustrated. The examples below depict types of usage covered in the guidelines.

"Generic" Pronoun	Alternatives
The bus driver should consider his passengers.	Bus drivers should consider their passengers. The bus driver should consider the passengers.
"Generic" Noun	Alternatives
Men of all nations seek peace.	People of all nations seek peace. All nations seek peace. All people seek peace.
"Man" Prefixes	Alternatives
man-made fibers/materials	machinemade fibers/materials, synthetic fibers/materials
"Man" Suffixes	Alternatives
chairman	chairperson, coordinator, moderator, leader
businessman	businessperson, business executive, manager, industrialist, merchant

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[7] Nilsen, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

The terminology observed in the manuals examined in preparation for this paper applied not only to women but also to other groups of people usually omitted in the language of publications. In addition to specifying that women must be included in the language of textbooks the guidelines also designate racial and multiethnic groups as persons to portray in both text and illustrations.

OMISSION AND COMMISSION

All guidelines researched identified sexism by omission of the female in language as well as sexism by commission of the female to stereotyped roles.

"Generics"

Pronouns such as "anyone," "who," "somebody," "they," and "you" in no way denote sex. "They" is the third-person plural that may be used to contain both sexes, but there is no comparable singular form in the English language.

The distinction between "natural" and "grammatical" gender is given in Stanley's coverage of gender-marking in English. "Grammatical gender" is defined as that which

> . . .refers to the three main noun-classes recognized in Greek and Latin, "feminine," "neuter," and "masculine," and at least part of the confusion derives from the traditional use of sex-linked terminology to designate noun classifications. As Lyons (1969, p. 283) points out, this terminology reflects "the association which traditional grammar established between sex and gender." The term gender is derived from Latin genus, "class" or "kind," and the classification of nouns into three genders accounted for pronominal reference and adjectival concord (Lyons). Theoretically, grammatical gender is independent of sex.
>
> Natural gender refers to the classification of nouns on the basis of biological sex, as female or male, or animate and inanimate. According to grammarians, English is a lanuuage in which natural gender determines pronominal reference. . .[6]

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[6] Nilsen, op. cit., p. 43.

People who resist change attempt to argue that "chairperson" is not an appropriate term for the leadership position it identifies. The question they raise is:

"How do you address a chairperson?"

The answer is,

"Mister Chairperson." or "Madame Chairperson."

If the opposers think that addressing a chairperson is ridiculous, how much more so would be "Mister Chairwoman" which is equally as inappropriate as "Madam Chairman."

Another form of address for a chairperson might be

"Chairperson Jones"

which is adaptable to either sex and personalizes by use of the last name coupled with the official role.

People who object to "chairperson" as an all-inclusive term which identifies the position rather than the sex of an individual bring into focus once more the contrast of the treatment of people and horses.

Nobody protests that "sawhorse" is an offensive term; again, the long-accepted "horse" word specifies the type of being rather than the sex of the individual.

Both "chair" and "saw" are inanimate nouns that are combined with nouns that specify a type of live being. "Sawstallion" would be a strange word, but it would be parallel with the sex-specific "chairman."

Parallels

As noted above, inconsistencies exist within traditional noun forms. Parallel wording and structure nevertheless contribute to faster, more meaningful reading.

"Parallel treatment" or an equivalent term appeared in each of the publishing company guidelines. The expressions below illustrate typical kinds of expressions covered.

Noun "Offenders"	Noun "Menders"
men and ladies	men and women; ladies and gentlemen
men and girls	men and women; boys and girls (unless the "men" refer to adults; the "girls," to children)

Name/Title "Offenders"	Name/Title "Menders"
John Jones and Miss Smith	John Jones and Jean Smith
Mr. Jones and Janet	John and Janet; Jones and Brown; Mr. Jones and Ms. Brown

Personal titles preceding names of business personnel, although not treated in the manuals of the textbook publishers, is another area in which men and women do not receive comparable designation.

Marital status is no more relevant to a woman's business life than it is to a man's. The use of two different personal titles in order to denote a women's marital status and the use of a single personal title for a man, regardless of marital status, is discriminatory. Private life is a matter of individual choice, and ideally it should not be brought into the business or professional office.

In business, the functional approach that affords equal treatment of both sexes is that of using one personal title per sex and disregarding private matters in the work situation. As shown below, personal preference is open to many possible titles and names, any of which may be found among various social groups.

Personal Titles
Business/Professional

Mr. John Doe, Vice President

Ms. Jane Donohough
Vice President

Ms. Janet Johnson-Doe
Vice President

Dr. John Doe, Academic Dean

Dr. Jane Donohough
Academic Dean

Dr. Janet Johnson-Doe
Academic Dean

Personal Title
Private/Social

Mr. and Mrs. John Doe (Traditional)

Mrs. John Doe (Traditional)

Miss Janet Smith (Traditional)

Mrs. Jane Doe (Quasi-traditional)

Mr. John Doe/Ms. Jane Doe
(Contemporary)

Mr. John Doe/Ms. Jo Foster
(Contemporary)

Mr. John Doe/Ms. Jo Foster-Doe
(Contemporary)

Ms. Janet Smith (Contemporary)

Ms. Jane Doe (Contemporary)

Occupations

Whether occupational titles are identified in the United States Department of Labor's revision of job titles or not, they should denote occupation, not sex. Title and pay are often linked, and terminology can affect employee income level. Discriminatory companies have been known to assign nonsexist job titles but to place men in higher-paying positions than those filled by women who do the same work but for lower salaries or wages. Court ruling has altered that practice for orderlies and nurse aides, but some aspects of jobs are difficult to identify specifically enough to prove that equal work is being done for lower pay.

A few business communicators feel either threatened by or inadequate about the use of a single job title, especially "salesperson" instead of "salesman." Shown below are a few examples of contemporary job titles and the gender-marking words formerly used for them.

Rejected	Accepted
stewardess/steward	flight attendant
salesman	salesperson, salesclerk, sales representative
middleman	wholesaler, importer, middle marketer, broker
foreman	supervisor, team leader, coordinator
draftsman	drafter
workman	worker, laborer, employee
nurse aide/orderly	nursing assistant

SEXISM AND BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Word choice in written business messages is stressed, and the psychological effect of the communication upon the reader is emphasized Authoritative textbook authors accentuate the positive "you-attitude;" tireless classroom teachers reinforce the fact that the writer's true feelings are reflected in the words the reader receives; progressive business leaders urge company correspondents to project social consciousness. Nobody denies that words on the written or printed page depict the writer's real attitude and influence the reader's reaction.

Written Communication

Modern business letters transmit conversational tone far more than their earlier counterparts. It behooves contemporary business personnel to compose letters that contain language which "converses" with the women as well as the men of a company.

A revised typewriting style manual released by a leading textbook publisher lists among the recommended salutations for letters to corporations and other organizations,

"Ladies and Gentlemen"

which recognizes all employees, regardless of sex.[8]

Business letterswriters who would never consider saying, "yours of the 17th instance" continue to begin letters with "Gentlemen," even when they know that many of the personnel among the readership are women.

If accurate, effective word choice means anything to the sensitive business communicator, care to select the term that identifies with the readers and commands their attention will not be confined to the body of the letter.

"Ladies and Gentlemen" is as appropriate to begin a letter to a group of people as it is to open a speech. Such a salutation for either a written or an oral meesage will be effective when the information that follows it also contains language that includes all readers or listeners and does not slip into sexist omission and role stereotyping.

For persons who will not accept an all-inclusive salutation, there remains the option of using the Administrative Management Society simplified letter style that does not have a salutation; none at all is certainly better than one that ignores a segment of the readers.

Publications

Authors and editors of books, magazines, newspapers, business reports, and various other kinds of publications could improve significantly the reading-audience appeal of many of the messages they send on the pages of their offerings.

Strictly from a profit point of view, limited to pure money terms, writing and publishing are too expensive to risk possible income loss by excluding either women or men of any race, creed, color or national origin.

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[8] Clifford R. House and Samuel Skurow, Typewriting Style Manual, Correlated with Century 21 Typewriting, 2nd ed., South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, 1977, p. 20.

> that everyone knows how prices are set, how wages relate to profits, how a businessman thinks, works, acts, and lives. But this assumption happens to be untrue. What little the American public knows about business is some fifty to seventy-five years out of date. The public image of the big businessman is about where Theodore Dreiser, Upton Sinclair, and the cartoonists of fifty years ago left him.[11]

The language of the article itself is of approximately the same vintage as that of the cartoonist image noted to be so far behind contemporary communication needs.

Another Ways quotation could be interpreted as a key to lack of communication with the public because business not only withholds financial facts but also disregards 51 per cent of its public in its written messages.

> A keener appreciation of the need for public understanding or business would require a more rounded attention by companies to the peripheral effect of their communication.[12]

One of those effects is that of "turning off" many people who would listen much more receptively if business messages included them; those people are American women, whose skin may be black, red, white, or yellow.

Another magazine article which might be read by all sectors of the American public appeared in U.S. News and World Report, November 14, 1977, and concerned communication between teenagers and their parents.

Six high school students from various locations in the United States were interviewed, and all of them used "inclusive" verbal language in their comments. Such terminology as "people," "teens," "students," "adults," "blacks," "whites," "kids," "parents," "heroes," and "older generations" appeared throughout the article. The students said what they meant, and it is clear that they mean to include all invividuals by their consistent use of plurals.

Agreement of number was a minor problem that could be corrected very easily by teaching the students to use all plurals instead of blindly insisting that they change to the "generic he" to agree with the singular form. Even when one of the students misused a singular pronoun,

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[11] Ibid., p. 198.

[12] Ibid., p. 192.

Periodicals read by business personnel and the general public provide another example of omission by the use of "generic man."

In an article entitled, "Business Needs To Do a Better Job of Explaining Itself," Ways frequently specifies "he," "man," "businessman," and once inserts "Christian gentlemen." When women actually are included, that fact is noted clearly, as shown below where identifying words are underscored.

> . . .sons and daughters of the agrarian society, north and south, as they left the farms to enter the very different world of industrial capitalism. . .
>
> Today their grandchildren are in a far different position--educationally, politically, economically. They have to be sold on the system. And a great many of them have never been sold.[9]
>
> . . .He finds huge public relations departments that are not trusted by their top managements with information that ought to be publicized. He finds financial vice presidents who react to questions about the taxes their corporations pay as if the inquiry had been directed to the sex life of their mothers.[10]

In the very language of the following statements, Ways communicates a message about the need for explaining.

> . . .Today the typical critic of the business system does not accept the responsibility for saying what he would like in its stead. His habit is to denounce some specific shortcoming or injustice, implying that this is what one would expect from a system that is basically sick or outmoded. Proposed reforms are not seriously worked out in terms of how they would affect the system as a whole.
>
> This kind of criticism relieves the communicator of a very difficult task, that of understanding and explaining an economic system that is far from self-evident in its complex workings. The discussion assumes

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[9] Max Ways, "Business Needs To Do a Better Job of Explaining Itself," Fortune (September, 1972), Vol. LXXXVI, No. 3, p. 87.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 192.

To avoid stereotyping and "generic" use, two familiar quotations can be pluralized to serve as guidelines for effective, inclusive communication.

"Consider the turtles; they never get anywhere until they stick out their necks."

"Great Spirit, grant that I may not criticise [sic] my neighbors until I have walked a mile in their moccasins."

Perhaps this author-devised quotation will express the "call to communicate":

"Now is the time for all good Americans to pluralize to empathize."

CONCLUSIONS

1. Language that recognizes the individual as a human being rather than restricts the communication to a particular sex, race, religion, or nationality promotes the interest of human rights.

2. Awareness of all segments of the reading or listening audience of business promotes inclusive word choice or revised sentence structure that does not omit either sex, whether the number be singular or plural.

3. Revisions of meaning and additions to vocabulary occur as various changes in society indicate the need for language that communicates the trends and values of the people.

4. American youth tend to project greater awareness of all types of people than do business communicators who continue to use language that leaves a question of whether their exclusion reflects their true feelings or results from a lack of sensitivity to all segments of their reading and listening audiences.

5. Commitment to human rights requires united effort on the part of people who are willing to "stick out their necks" and practice inclusive communication that encompasses people of all walks of life, regardless of what types of "moccasins" are filled by those various individuals.

6. "Pluralize to empathize" offers a guideline to help business communicators remember that their audience is comprised of people who are both male and female, regardless of the race, color, creed, national origin of the individual reader or listener.

the next paragraph contained the correct plural form, which seems to be a natural; both quotations appear below:

> What is needed to make school and home life better is a little more sense of sticking together. Everybody seems to be on their own, except when some kin of major emergency happens, which is usually too late.
>
> If more people had jobs, they would begin to care more. And it would give them a sense of pride that they were doing something to help.[13]

The quotation contains real meaning; and only a minor change, such as substituting "individuals seem" for "everybody seems," would make it grammatically correct and acceptable. The "everybody/he" structure evidently is rejected by many people as stilted, a reasonable reaction. There is a very strong case for "individuals/they" and "people/they" because that is what people mean but have not been allowed to say. People's language reflects their attitudes and values. The change to the plural that people mean to convey is long overdue.

The only masculine gender-markers that appeared in the language of the kids could not be construed to be conditioning in sexist language. One word, "guys," indicated the association of men with government; but it is an accurate, almost explicit usage because it refers to a specific situation.

> Things like corruption in government turn me off. I can't understand how some of these _guys_ could work so hard to get up there, and all of a sudden blow it. If I were in government, I don't think I could be corrupted.[14]

Since the person who made the statement probably was thinking of the widely publicized Watergate, Mills, and Hays cases, "guys" would be a word many teenagers would use for "men"; and all of the people in these cases were men who resigned or were prosecuted.

People who are sincerely concerned about communication in business, industry, government, and education would do well to consider very carefully this statement:

> Students are more tolerant than older people about clothes, race, and people. We don't tend to stereotype as much.[15]

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[13] "What Kids Are Saying About Their Parents," _U.S. News and World Report_ (November 14, 1977), Vol. LXXXIII, No. 20, p. 90.

[14] _Ibid_., p. 89.

[15] _Ibid_., p. 92.

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SEXISM IN NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

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ABSTRACT

Sexism in nonverbal communication contributes to the perpetuation of the role stereotyping that is particularly detrimental to females. Research into nonverbal communication and power, use of space, touching, eye behavior and eye contact, smiling, posture and movement, and speech-related nonverbal communication consistently affirms the existence of conditioned behavioral patterns of male dominance and female submissiveness. Understanding and replication of the research, initiation of original research, and application to business communication situations can contribute to the removal of sexism from nonverbal communication--and, ultimately, to the sharing of both power and sensitivity by all people, regardless of sex.

INTRODUCTION

Sexism in communication exists when any communication precasts people on the basis of sex. And though it applies to both sexes, sexism falls more heavily upon females because of its perpetuation of the male-dominance and female-submissiveness stereotypes. If women are ever to attain equality and are ever to fulfill their human potential, communication sexism must be recognized for what it is--and eradicated.

Though sexism in written and oral communication is extremely serious, sexism in nonverbal communication is equally pervasive and debilitating. This paper deals with nonverbal sexism--particularly as it applies to business communication.

Because most of the work on sex-related nonverbal communication has been done in the fields of sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics, the beginning point for business communication application lies in a review of existing literature. The review presented in this paper is intended to establish a point of departure for thought, for possible research replication, and for original investigation. Therefore, the paper includes a summary of a few of the many findings associated with the topic--coupled with attempts to establish the basis for applying and testing them in business settings.

Seven categories define the coverage. The first--a consideration of nonverbal communication and power--sets the stage by summarizing how nonverbal sexism thrusts the female into the historical role of the subordinate to the male. The other six deal with some of the components that combine to define the summary "picture." Though neither collectively exhaustive nor mutually exclusive, the six remaining categories represent some of the major elements associated with nonverbal communication: use of space, touching, eye behavior and eye contact, smiling, posture and movement, and speech-related nonverbal communication.

Power and Nonverbal Communication

The overriding nonverbal communication in business lies in the unreasoning and illogical acceptance by far too many people that the organizational scenario expresses the "correct" relative importance of females and males. The acceptance goes something like this:

Surely, if less than three percent of top management and more than ninety percent of clerical and secretarial workers are women, then men must be inherently superior to women. And if men are inherently superior to women, then men must have the inherent "right" to treat them as decorative sex objects and servants; to refer to them in sexual terms, not mental terms; to reject them if they are not attractive; to call them "girls," while referring to themselves as "men"; to call them by their first names, while expecting to be called by respectful courtesy titles and last names; to "protect" them; to "dictate" to them; to use sexist communication forms; to ask about their marital and child-bearing plans; to treat them as if their place is in the home; to accuse working mothers of contributing to juvenile delinquency and virtually all the other ills of the world; to expect them to care for home and children in addition to working, yet condemn them if they miss work because of an ill child; to put them down if they express support of feminism; to assume that they work for "pin money"; to pay them less than men; to accuse them of taking jobs that men should have in order to support families; to keep them at lower positions because of myths about women and travel, women and career aspirations, women as incapable and undesirous of having responsibility and promotion, women and turnover, women as undesirable and unwanted supervisors, and women as wives and mothers first; to conclude that single women work only because they cannot "catch" a man; to decide that women have a higher absentee rate than men; to judge that they should be satisfied with "women's jobs" and should not compete for "men's jobs"; to dismiss them as frivolous, empty-headed creatures; to treat affirmative action requirements as interference to be met only to the bare minimal level necessary to seem to meet the letter--not the spirit--of the law; to create communications, such as advertisements, commercials, annual reports, letters, application forms, memoranda, meeting formats, and job titles and descriptions, that perpetuate the stereotyped imagery.

The generalized stereotypical business "scene" serves well as a stimulus to the creation of mental images of sexist nonverbalism. However, a more traditional delineation will provide the transition to the categorized consideration of findings.

In an excellent summary, Henley and Thorne annotate Frieze:

> Certain nonverbal behaviors are associated with dominance and status, others with liking and warmth; the same behaviors also differentiate men and women, in ways that perpetuate sex-role stereotypes. That is, males display more dominance and high status cues, and females indicate greater emotional warmth nonverbally. A behavior associated with dominance and high status, and with males, is control of greater territory and personal space, including a greater tendency to touch. Nonverbal behaviors associated with liking or warmth are also associated with women, and with lower status, suggesting that women's characteristic warmth and expressiveness are necessitated by their submissive roles. Higher status individuals show less direct eye contact, while women show more social eye contact. Women smile more than men; if the smiling is for other purposes than happiness or greetings, it would be another example of communication of low status. Women's greater receptivity to others' nonverbal cues, while supporting the stereotype of greater emotional warmth, may be necessary for their survival, as with other low status groups (blacks have been shown to be better than whites at interpreting others' nonverbal signals). "Clearly women communicate low status and submission, often unconsciously, through their use of 'feminine' nonverbal cues. Such behavior, although quite possibly caused originally by their lower status in our society, also serves to perpetuate sex-role stereotypes and lower status for women." The behaviors are difficult to confront since they are largely unconsciously emitted and interpreted. Women who are conscious of them are put in the position of having to choose between "feminine" and assertive behavior. . . .[1]

Henley and Thorne also annotate an article by Henley that makes the same sort of summary statement about sexism in nonverbal communication:

> The minutiae of everyday life . . . /contribute/ to social control, as micropolitical acts serving to maintain and perpetuate hierarchical social structure and to intimidate those who would change it. Women are particularly affected by subtle verbal and nonverbal cues because of their socialization to docility, their physical integration around centers of power, and their greater sensitivity to nonverbal communication. Much nonverbal behavior is not innate but culturally learned and designed to emphasize sex differences. . . . Sex differences in language usage tend to put women at a disadvantage; there is also misogyny in much linguistic convention. Men talk more and probably interrupt more. There are sex and status differences in self-disclosure, and status differences in terms of address. . . . In the nonverbal realm all the following are associated with higher status and with men: freedom of demeanor, greater personal space, freedom

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[1] Nancy Henley and Barrie Thorne, comps., She Said/He Said: An Annotated Bibliography of Sex Differences in Language, Speech, and Nonverbal Communication (Pittsburgh, PA: KNOW, INC., 1975), 290-291, annotating Irene Hanson Frieze, "Nonverbal Aspects of Femininity and Masculinity Which Perpetuate Sex-Role Stereotypes," paper presented at Eastern Psychological Association, 1974.

> to touch others, staring, and withholding of personal information (particularly about emotions). Men's greater touching of women cannot be explained by sexual attraction, because that explanation would require women to touch men equally. Touch is analogous to the use of first name: used reciprocally, it indicates intimacy, nonreciprocally, it indicates status. Staring, pointing, touching, and interrupting are dominance gestures; lowering or averting the eyes, hesitating or stopping action or speech, cuddling to the touch, allowing interruption, and smiling are submission gestures, all more common to women than to men. There is a pattern of reaction to women's appropriation of the correlates of status (male gestures) which attributes them to sexual invitation. Many of these gestures, e.g., touching, staring, proximity, and relaxed demeanor, have a dual nature in that they are used between intimates, and therefore lend themselves well to sexual interpretation that denies women's assertion of power. Though manipulating these status cues will not change fundamental power relationships in the society, knowledge of them will raise consciousness and help people change those relationships.[2]

Mehrabian concludes in similar fashion:

> Some of the most consistent results in our research on social styles bear on sex differences. Women are generally more positive and less dominant than men. Specifically, their nonverbal style communicates more liking . . ., and they are less relaxed and more submissive in their nonverbal behavior . . . . Consistent with these results are the findings that they get higher scores on measures of affiliative tendency . . . and empathy . . . .[3]

From the consideration of summaries of nonverbal communication and power, attention is turned to the six named categories intended to elaborate on the general conclusions. The establishment of the categories and the development of them are based heavily upon Henley and Thorne's She Said/He Said: An Annotated Bibliography of Sex Differences in Language, Speech, and Nonverbal Communication.

Use of Space

As established, use of space is a key nonverbal concept in a study of sexism. Four situations--and possible application to business communication--are presented.

Lott and Sommer report that in a study of how a subject would locate her/himself with regard to a person of higher, lower, or equal status, and of either sex, some of the findings are: (1) About twice as many females as males sat side by side; this happened more frequently vis-á-vis a low-status than high-status person. (2) ". . . thirty-seven subjects chose the head chair for themselves vis-á-vis Professor Susan Smith while half that number chose it vis-á-vis Professor Henry Smith." The study involved 224 university men and women and reported significant sex differences.[4]

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[2] Henley and Thorne, She Said/He Said, 291-292, annotating Nancy M. Henley, "Power, Sex, and Nonverbal Communication," Berkeley Journal of Sociology, 18 (1973-74), 1-26.

[3] Albert Mehrabian, Silent Messages (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1971), 67.

For application of the Lott and Sommer findings to business, the board or meeting room, the executive office, and even the coffee shop would provide settings for researching sex- and status-relative location in seating arrangements.

Frieze concludes that control of personal space and territory is a behavior that is associated with high status and dominance. She bases the conclusion on studies that show that (1) women are less likely to have a special and unviolated room in the home, (2) fathers are more likely to have a special chair, and (3) people tend to stand closer to women than to men in similar circumstances.[5]

In the business world the appropriate research would consider relativity of amount and desirability of office space for females and males, with controls established for occupational status.

A study by Willis of the initial speaking distance set by an approaching person shows that ". . . women were approached more closely than were men, by both men and women."[6]

For business communication, the conclusion should be tested with controls for status instituted. Such controls will be difficult to establish because of the role-stereotyping associated with jobs, e.g., the man as boss, the woman as secretary.

Silveira concludes that women are expected to walk around men in passing on the street. Only 19 man-woman pairs were observed, but in 12 of them, the women moved out of the men's way. In four of them, both moved, and in three, the men moved.[7]

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[4] Henley and Thorne, She Said/He Said, 295, annotating Dale F. Lott and Robert Sommer, "Seating Arrangements and Status," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 7 (1967), 90-95.

[5] Ibid., 295, annotating Irene Hanson Frieze, "Nonverbal Aspects of Femininity and Masculinity Which Perpetuate Sex-Role Stereotypes," paper presented at Eastern Psychological Association, 1974.

[6] Nancy M. Henley, "Power, Sex, and Nonverbal Communication," in Language and Sex: Difference and Dominance, eds. Barrie Thorne and Nancy Henley, Series in Sociolinguistics (Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1975), 191, citing F. N. Willis, "Initial Speaking Distance as a Function of the Speakers' Relationship," Psychonomic Science, 5 (1966), 221-22.

[7] Henley and Thorne, She Said/He Said, 296, annotating Jeanette Silveira, "Thoughts on the Politics of Touch, " Women's Press, 1 (Feb., 1972), 13.

To test the conclusion, more carefully controlled replications could be set in long halls and passageways of business buildings.

Touching

Three reports represent the treatment of touching as an indicator of sexism in nonverbal communication.

Henley found a statistically significant difference at the .001 level for the cases of men touching women (41) and women touching men (21). Touching within the sexes was about equal. When all other demographic data are held equal, the difference for the sexes was even greater. Males touched females in 23 cases; females touched males in five cases; males touched males in five cases; and females touched females in five cases. "In other words, all other things equal, men touch women at an even greater rate; when other things are unequal, as for instance when women have other status advantages in the absence of the sex one, there is more chance of women initiating touching incidents."[8]

In another study, Henley found:

> Among same-age white adults, women's nonreciprocation of men's touch was significantly greater than men's nonreciprocation of women's . .[9]

In extension of her study of touching, Henley writes that a hypothesis often offered is that touching indicates no more than sexual attraction between females and males, and thus explains why males touch females more than the reverse. However, if sexual attraction is all that is involved, then why is not the initiation of touch equal between the sexes? Women are just as sexually motivated as men.

> . . . we must say that women are inhibited from displaying their sexual interest in this manner. . . . At this point we are back where we started, asking why one sex group feels free to express its motivation tactually and another does not. . . . because touch is an indication of power, it is acceptable when done by a man; when by a woman, the implication of power is unacceptable and must be denied.[10]

Business office and meeting situations could be observed for touching related to sex, both with and without the control of other variables.

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[8] Nancy M. Henley, "The Politics of Touch," paper presented at the 1970 meeting of the American Psychological Association as part of a panel discussion of "Social Psychology and Women's Liberation," 4-5.

[9] Henley and Thorne, She Said/He Said, 299, annotating Nancy M. Henley, "Status and Sex: Some Touching Observations," Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society, 2 (1973), 91-93.

[10] Henley, "Politics of Touch," 5-6.

Eye Behavior and Eye Contact

Eye behavior and eye contact are indicators of sex-role nonverbal activity. Two pieces of research illustrate the subject.

In three experiments which examine the effect of distance on eye contact with relation to speaking, for females and males in both mixed- and same-sex dyads, Argyle and Ingham found that females were more inhibited than males by the possibility of eye contact.[11]

Studies could be made in business offices to determine whether such inhibition exists in organizational settings.

Exlene, Gray, and Shuette determined from interviews of forty female and forty male students, half of each sex interviewed by a male and half by a female interviewer, that ". . . sex differences in eye contact are a result of women's greater orientation toward affectionate and inclusive relationships with others."[12]

The relationship between sex and affectionate/inclusive activities could have a bearing on interpersonal communication in the business context. Thus, it should be tested.

Smiling

Though not based on statistically analyzed research, description from many quarters asserts that women smile more than men--and that submissiveness is the intent of the cue.

Bugental, Love, and Gianetto report that studies have shown that

> . . . children respond to women's smiles, in comparison with men's, as relatively neutral, and that they respond to contradictory messages (negative statement accompanied by a smile) as negative, and more so if the speaker is a woman.

The basis for the assumption of neutrality is judged to be that ". . . women use the smile as part of a culturally prescribed role."[13]

In an experiment concerned with persuasiveness, Mehrabian concluded ". . . males' 'facial pleasantness and activity' were judged to be less than those of females." A role-playing experiment showed that ". . . males increased their facial pleasantness when attempting to deceive, whereas females in the deception condition showed no more facial pleasantness than in the truthful condition."[14]

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[11] Henley and Thorne, She Said/He Said, 301, annotating Michael Argyle and Roger Ingham, "Gaze, Mutual Gaze, and Proximity," Semiotica, 6 (1972), 32-49.

[12] Ibid., 302, annotating Ralph Exline, David Gray, and Dorothy Shuette, "Visual Behavior in a Dyad as Affected by Interview Content and Sex of Respondent," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1 (1965), 201-209.

[13] Ibid., 304, annotating Daphne E. Bugental, Leonore R. Love, and Robert M. Gianetto, "Perfidious Feminine Faces," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 17 (1971), 314-318.

Many writers treat smiling as a submissive signal. For example, Silveira notes that such is particularly true from women to men and compares the smiling/submissive context with monkeys and apes. The conclusion she reaches is:

> Women seem more apt to smile especially (1) when a woman and man are greeting each other, and (2) when the two know each other only moderately well. The smile indicates assurance that no harm or aggression is intended, rather than pleasure and friendliness.[15]

The potential sexism related to smiling should be studied in business situations. Again, the extraneous effects related to status must be controlled.

Posture and Movement

An important aspect of nonverbal communication is defined by posture and movement. Two examples of findings represent the treatment of movement and posture in this paper.

Mehrabian writes:

> A striking and consistent finding from our studies in that males in this culture assume more relaxed postures than do females. This is the case whether the other people present are male or female and in a variety of circumstances. Women's Liberationists, take heed! Relax![16]

A brief statement details some of the awkwardness of the postures prescribed for women. Henley and Thorne annotate the anonymous piece:

> (1) "Sit down in a straight chair. Cross your legs at the ankles and keep your knees pressed together . . ." (2) "Bend down to pick up an object from the floor. Each time you bend remember to bend your knees so that your rear end doesn't stick up, and place one hand on your shirtfront to hold it to your chest. . . ." (3) "Run a short distance, keeping your knees together. You'll find you have to take short, high steps . . ." (4) "Sit comfortably on the floor. . . Arrange your legs so that no one can see [your underwear]. Sit like

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[14] Ibid., 304, annotating Albert Mehrabian, *Nonverbal Communication* (Chicago: Aldine Atherton, 1972), 70 and 88.

[15] Ibid., 305, annotating Jeanette Silveira, "Thoughts on the Politics of Touch," *Women's Press*, 1 (Feb., 1972), 13.

[16] Mehrabian, *Silent Messages*, 16.

> this for a long time without changing position." (5) "Walk down a city street . . . Look straight ahead. Every time a man walks past you, avert your eyes and make your face expressionless. . . ." (6) "Walk around with your stomach pulled in tight, your shoulders thrown back, and your chest out. . . . Try to speak loudly and aggressively in this posture."[17]

The two situations provide several bases for business-context examination of the sexist elements associated with posture and movement. Mehrabian's comment about Women's Liberation is particularly interesting, for it reflects a problem in cause-and-effect reasoning. However, his comment does point up the importance of attacking symptoms as one means of getting to root causes of them.

Speech-Related Nonverbal Communication

Many nonverbal elements are associated with oral communication. Two situations that relate to sexism are presented.

Eakins and Eakins report on research concerned with verbal turn-taking and exchanges. In summary they write:

> Seven faculty meetings in a university department during an academic year were audio tape recorded and transcribed. Verbal interaction at the meetings was examined, using a model of turn-taking which focuses on points of speaker exchange, verbal overlaps, and interruptions. In the samples examined, male speakers were found to take more time per turn, to initiate more interruptions, and to be interrupted less than women. Conversely, women took fewer talking turns, averaged less time per turn, initiated fewer interruptions, but were interrupted more.[18]

Thorne and Henley condense many conclusions about speech-related nonverbal sexism. Some excerpts from their condensation are:

> The patterns of hesitation . . ., qualification . . ., and "syntactic looseness" which some attribute to female speech may be related to conversational subordination, for example, to the fact that women are more vulnerable to being interrupted. . . . In general, the female style of speech seems to be characterized by less obtrusiveness; for example, by less speech intensity . . .; by the use of head nods and _mm hmm_ (rather than the more obtrusive and emphatic, _yeah_ or _right_) to indicate agreement and attention . . .; by more

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[17] Ibid., 297, annotating Anonymous, "Exercises for Men," _Willamette Bridge_ (date unknown). Reprinted in _Radical Therapist_, 1, No. 5 (1971), 15.

[18] Barbara Eakins and Gene Eakins, "Verbal Turn-Taking and Exchanges in Faculty Dialogue," in _The Sociology of the Languages of American Women_, eds. Betty Lou Dubois and Isabel Crouch (San Antonio, TX: Trinity University, 1976), 57-60.

> frequent use of tag questions and compound request forms . . . . patterns of deference may be conveyed through asymmetric teasing. . . . women have no place in dirty jokes except as the butt of humor.[19]

In a study of mental-hospital staff meetings, including two female psychiatrists,

> . . . men made 99 out of the 103 witticisms, "but women often laughed harder". . . . in this situation, status was signaled by making witticisms, and subordination by laughing; women, even those with high occupational status, more often took the subordinate role.[20]

Business settings would provide excellent bases for research into the sexism associated with such speech-related nonverbal communication as that reported here.

CONCLUSION

Business communicators must mount a frontal attack upon communication sexism--including that found in the nonverbal realm. The ongoing purposes of the firm will be served by the improvement of interpersonal relationships resulting from an understanding of the sex-role stereotyping perpetuated through communication forms. However, the major potential contribution of the eradication of communication sexism lies in the release of a class of people--women--from the secondratedness perpetrated upon them by it.

To begin the attack, the serious business communicator should review the findings from the literature, apply them if they are well founded, and replicate the research if they are not.

From the review of some studies presented in this paper comes the general conclusion that nonverbal communication reflects and perpetuates male dominance and female subordination. The findings associated with some of the traditional nonverbal components--use of space, touching, eye behavior and eye contact, smiling, posture and movement, and speech-related nonverbal communication--support the general conclusion.

One of the most difficult tasks for the researcher of nonverbal sexism in the organizational setting is to disentangle the factors of sex- and status-based differences. However, the researcher must not become paralyzed by the difficulty, for perhaps the most pervasive sexism comes from the very pattern that established the status differences in the first place.

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[19] Barrie Thorne and Nancy Henley, "Difference and Dominance: An Overview of Language, Gender, and Society," in Language and Sex: Difference and Dominance, eds. Barrie Thorne and Nancy Henley, Series in Sociolinguistics (Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1975), 16-17.

[20] Ibid., 17.

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